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To the Editor of the Tradesman, or Commercial Magazine.

SIR,

BY giving a place to the following plan, in your valuable Magazine, you will confer a signal favour on an Old Correspondent.

T. W.

Broad Street, Jan. 11th, 1812.

A PLAN FOR THE PRESERVATION OF ENGLISH MERCHANT VESSELS FROM CAPTURE AND WRECK, BY THE SUPPRESSION OF FRENCH PRIVATEERING, AND THE ULTIMATE ANNIHILATION OF THEIR COASTING TRADE.

NO circumstance perhaps in the political concerns of Great Britain will excite more astonishment, in an enquiring posterity, than the audacious and uncontrouled depredations of the enemy's privateers on our shores; at a period too, when England, the undisputed MISTRESS of the OCEAN, bids defiance to the united powers of the world! That this pernicious system of warfare is at present carried into execution in our very harbours, and before the eyes of Englishmen, compelled to be passive spectators of their country's disgrace, we have only to refer to the columns of the daily papers. It is hoped, therefore, that a plan, which has no less for its object than to curb these ignominious ravages, and to restore the sullied glory of our maritime name to its wonted lustre, will not be hastily or inconsiderately rejected; but will

meet with that cool and serious attention an object of such national importance requires. It is submitted, in the first instance, that the smuggling craft, now laying in a state of inactivity in the different ports from the Land's-end to Yarmouth, be taken into the immediate service of government.—Secondly, that they be manned each by its own respective crew; men who, from long and hazardous experience, are well acquainted with every creek on the French coast, and who (as it is well ascertained) wish to relinquish their present mode of life, and engage themselves in some line to advance the welfare of their country.—Thirdly, that officers from the royal navy be appointed to the command of each ship.

The first and most essential benefit resulting from the adoption of this plan would be, the effectual protection of merchant vessels, as well from the rapacious attacks of the foe, as from those frequent and destructive wrecks, too often occasioned by being compelled to hug the shore through a fear of capture; for no privateer will attempt to quit the shore from Ushant to Ostend, whilst we maintain in the channel a fleet of fast sailing ships, and manned by intrepid, able, interested seamen, continually on the look-out. We should by this means not only destroy the coasting trade of the enemy, and oblige them to keep one hundred thousand men in arms for the protection of their own shores, but by captures alone, be enabled to defray the expences of the whole armament employed by us.

An Estimate of Monies to be saved by the adoption of the said Plan.

Insurance of vessels to and from the port of London, and the different harbours in the channel, paid by government for convoys, &c. ditto.

Loss by captures made by the French between Ushant and Ostend.

Paid to the protectors of trade.

By hugging the coast, in wear and tear.

Loss of time in keeping along shore through the danger of being captured.

Loss in gales of wind through ditto, ditto, ditto.

Loss in waiting for convoys through ditto, ditto.

Value of men taken on an aggregate of five years; there being five hundred seamen (at thirty pounds each) annually lost to the country by despicable French boats, amounting to near five millions sterling.

PRODIGIOUS POWERS OF CALCULATION.

THE following account of as singular and surprising an instance of intense exertion of faculties and ready solution of questions of complicated numerical calculation, as ever astonished mankind, we extract from the French Journal, the *Gazette de France*, of the 21st Dec. last. A cursory remark upon this extraordinary child's powers, which appeared some time since in the Miscellaneous Department of the Tradesman. But the article before us is so clear, circumstantial and authenticated, that we think it will prove as acceptable and interesting to our readers as it is curious and uncommon in itself. Without further preface, therefore, we shall subjoin a full and accurate translation of it.

The twelfth number of *The Annals of Education* contains the history of a child, who is, in reality, a prodigy.

Zerah Colburn was born in April, 1804, at Cabot, county of Caledonia, Vermont, in the United States of America. In the progress of his life he appeared to resemble, in every particular, other children of the same age, both as to levity, thoughtlessness, and the childishness of his amusements; but whenever his attention happened to be fixed wholly upon any subject, he displayed faculties far above his age; and, whenever a question of numerical calculation happened to be that subject, far above what could be expected from a person of any age. Mr. M'Nevin states, in *The American Medical and Philosophical Journal and Review*, that he heard him give, without the slightest hesitation, or the most trifling error, answers to the following questions:—

Q. What is the sum of the numbers 1347, 1953, and 2091?—A. 5391.

Q. What are the numbers, which, being multiplied each by the other, produce the sum of 1242?—A. 54 by 23—9 by 138—27 by 46—3 by 414—6 by 207—2 by 621, and these different solutions were given as quickly as words could express them.

Q. What number is it, that when multiplied by itself produces the sum of 1369?—A. 37.

Q. What number is it, when multiplied by itself, produces 2401?—A. 49: and 7 multiplied by 343 produces the same number.

Q. What number will six multiplied six times by itself, produce?—A. The child proceeded in his calculation aloud in the following manner, and as quickly as the words

could be uttered; six times six make 36: six times 36 make 216; six times 216 make 1296; six times 1296 make 7776; six times 7776 make 46,656; and six times 46,656 make 279,936.

Q. How many hours in twenty-five years, eleven months and three days?—A. 226,992.

The person who put this question to the child had made a mistake in his calculation, so that after hearing the answer, he observed to the child that the answer was erroneous. After a moment's reflection, Zerah assured him that the answer was correct. The operation was repeated, and it was found that the child was right.*

When it was proposed to the child to multiply 123 by 237, the father objected, because the operation of multiplying three numbers by three numbers was very difficult. The child replied that he could multiply these two sums, and kept his word; he even multiplied, and very readily too, 1234 by 1234. It was nevertheless observed, that the difficult questions distressed him, and he often requested that such complicated questions should not be put to him. Whilst giving his answers, it was manifest from his air, from the fire of his eyes, and from the contraction of his features, how much his mind laboured. His physiognomy is very expressive.

Mr. M'Nevin, in relating this case of Zerah Colburn, takes occasion to mention another person (Jedidiah Buxton), who was remarkable in the last century for an extraordinary facility of calculation, but who had no other faculty of an intelligent mind. Jedidiah seemed even to be destitute of some of the most common sentiments.

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* The child and the person who put the questions to him, forgot to take into their calculation, in the last instance, the difference of Bessextile years, and have considered the eleven months as consisting of thirty days each. This omission brings to mind an anecdote of the same kind. A little child, who had also an astonishing facility of calculation, was brought to D'Alembert. "My child," said D'Alembert, "this is my age, tell me how many minutes I have lived?" The child retired to a corner of the room, hid his face with his hands, and returned, a moment after with his answer to D'Alembert, who had not yet completed the same operation which he had commenced with his pen. He finished it, however, and the two results did not agree. "You have made a mistake my little friend," said D'Alembert. The child returned to his corner, went again through his calculation, and then insisted that there was no error in it. D'Alembert repeated his operation, and contended that his result was correct. "But, Sir," said the child, all at once, "have you considered the Bissextile years?" D'Alembert had forgotten these, and the child was right.

Music presented to him nothing but a confusion of sounds: and when taken to a representation of one of Shakespeare's plays, in which Garrick played a part, he attended to nothing but counting the number of words pronounced by that great and celebrated actor. Zerah Colburn, on the contrary, exhibits a great deal of mind; he is ready at repartees, and sometimes pointedly severe.

Some days previous to the visit of Mr. M'Nevin, a woman, in sport, asked him *what three Zerahs multiplied by three Zerahs would amount to? Exactly what you are*, replied he, *nothing at all?*

AN ACCOUNT OF A VEGETABLE WAX FROM BRAZIL.

BY WILLIAM THOMAS BRANDE, ESQ. F.R.S.*

§ 1. The vegetable wax described in this paper was given to the president by Lord Grenville, with a wish on the part of his lordship that its properties should be investigated, in the hope that it might prove an useful substitute for bees'-wax, and constitute, in due time, a new article of commerce between the Brazils and this country.

It was transmitted to Lord Grenville from Rio de Janeiro, by the Comte de Galveas, as a new article lately brought to that city from the northernmost parts of the Brazilian dominions, the capiteneas of Rio Grande and Seara, between the latitudes of three and seven degrees north: it is said to be the production of a tree of slow growth, called by the natives *Carnauba*, which also produces a gum used as food for men, and another substance employed for fattening poultry.

When the Comte wrote to Lord Grenville in July last, orders had been sent to the governors of the districts where it grows, requiring them to report more particularly on the nature and qualities of this interesting tree: we may therefore hope that information will be soon obtained, whether the article can be procured in abundance, and at a reasonable price; in which case it will become a valuable addition to the comforts of mankind, by reduc-

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* For a curious account of *Vegetable Tallow*, produced from the *Populus Nigra*, or Black Poplar, vide p. 137, vol. 2, Tradesman for Feb. 1809.

ing the price and improving the quality of candles, flambeaux, &c.

The article, in the state in which it was sent, resembles much that described by Humboldt as the produce of the Ceroxylon Andicola, but it is not likely to be the same, as Humboldt's wax is collected from a stately palm-tree, which grows on the high mountains from 900 to 1450 toises above the level of the sea, and on the edge of the regions of perpetual snow. On the other hand, the Brazilian plant is described as a slow-growing tree, but not as a large one, and there are no high mountains delineated in the most accurate and recent maps of the capiteneas where it is found. But a more decisive argument against their identity is the analysis of Vauquelin, published by Humboldt, which shows that the produce of the Ceroxylon consists of two-thirds resin and only one-third wax; but the Brazilian article is entirely wax, and affords not the smallest trace of resin. The Brazilian plant, however, was not entirely unknown to Humboldt; for it appears from his book, that M. Correa had informed him that a palm, called *Carnauba* by the natives of Brazil, produced wax from its leaves.

§ II.—1. The wax in its rough state is in the form of a coarse pale-gray powder, soft to the touch, and mixed with various impurities, consisting chiefly of fibres of the bark of the tree, which, when separated by a sieve, amount to about 40 per cent.

It has an agreeable odour, somewhat resembling new hay, but scarcely any taste.

At 206° Fahrenheit, it enters into perfect fusion, and in this state it may be further purified by passing it through fine linen. By this process it acquires a dirty-green colour, and its peculiar smell becomes more evident. When cold, it is moderately hard and brittle. Its specific gravity is 980.

2. Water exerts no action on the wax, unless boiled with it for some hours; it then acquires a slight brown tinge, and the peculiar odour of the wax.

3. Alcohol does not dissolve any potion of the wax, unless heat be applied.

Two fluid ounces of boiling alcohol, spec. grav. 826, dissolve about ten grains of the wax, of which eight grains are deposited as the solution cools, and the remaining two grains may be afterwards precipitated by the addition of water, or may be obtained unaltered by evaporating the alcohol.

The solution of the wax in alcohol has a slightly green tinge.

4. Sulphuric ether, spec. grav. ·7563, dissolves a very minute portion of the wax, at the temperature of 60°.

Two fluid ounces of boiling sulphuric ether dissolve thirty grains of the wax, of which twenty-six grains are deposited by cooling the solution, and the remaining four grains may be obtained by allowing the ether to evaporate spontaneously.

5. The fixed oils very readily dissolve the wax at the temperature of boiling water, and form with it compounds of an intermediate consistence, very analogous to those which are obtained with common bees'-wax.

In examining some combinations which I had made of the vegetable wax with olive oil, I was surprised to find them perfectly soluble in ether, and sparingly soluble in boiling alcohol.

As it is commonly stated that the fixed oils are insoluble in ether and in alcohol, I was led to attribute the solution of the oil, in these instances, to its being combined with the wax; but subsequent experiments, of which I shall state the general results, have shown me that these opinions are erroneous.

Four fluid ounces of sulphuric ether, spec. grav. ·7563, dissolve a fluid ounce and a quarter of the expressed oil of almonds; of olive oil, the same quantity of the ether dissolves a fluid ounce and a half; of linseed oil, two fluid ounces and a half; and castor oil is soluble in any proportion in sulphuric ether of the above specific gravity.

The expressed oils of almonds and of olives are very sparingly soluble in alcohol, spec. grav. ·820.

Linseed oil is more soluble than the two former. Four fluid ounces of alcohol, spec. grav. ·820, dissolve nearly one fluid drachm.

Castor oil is perfectly soluble in every proportion in alcohol, spec. grav. ·820. In alcohol of a higher specific gravity, as ·840, it is very sparingly soluble.*

As some of the difficultly soluble resins are more easily dissolved in alcohol to which a small proportion of camphor has been added, I endeavoured to ascertain whether the fixed oils were rendered more soluble by the same

* The solubility of castor oil in alcohol was mentioned to me some months ago by Dr. Wollaston, who also informed me, that it had on that account been employed to adulterate certain essential oils of high value, especially the oil of cloves.

means, but found that this was not the case, excepting with regard to castor oil, which, although very sparingly dissolved by alcohol of a spec. grav. ·840°, becomes abundantly soluble by the addition of one part of camphor to eight parts of the alcohol.

Boiling alcohol, spec. grav. ·840, takes up a considerable portion of castor oil and of linseed oil; it also dissolves a small quantity of the oils of almonds and of olives; but they are copiously deposited during the cooling of the alcohol, and only a small portion retained in permanent solution.

When water is added to any of these solutions of the fixed oils in ether, and in alcohol, a milky mixture is formed, and the oil gradually separates upon the surface, without having undergone any apparent alteration.

6. One hundred grains of the wax were boiled for half an hour in a solution of caustic potash, spec. grav. 1090. The solution acquired a pale-rose colour, but appeared to exert no further action on the wax, which after having been washed with warm water retained its fusibility and other properties. No combination therefore, similar to a soap, was produced, nor was any precipitate occasioned by the addition of acids to the rose-coloured alkaline solution.

7. The effects produced by boiling the wax in solutions of pure soda, and of the subcarbonates of soda and of potash, were analogous to those of the caustic potash.

8. Solutions of pure and of carbonated ammonia exert scarcely any action on the wax

9. When the wax is boiled in nitric acid, spec. grav. 1·45, there is some escape of nitrous gas, and the colour of the wax is gradually changed to a deep yellow.

When the wax is removed from the acid, and washed with hot water, it is found to have become more brittle and hard, but it still retains much of its peculiar odour.

In this state it remains insoluble in the alkalies; but they now change its colour to a very bright brown, which is destroyed by washing with dilute muriatic acid, and its original yellow colour restored.

Neither the fusibility nor the inflammability of the wax is impaired by this process.

Nitric acid, diluted with eight parts of water, produces the same change in the colour of the wax as the concentrated acid.

Having been unsuccessful in my attempts to bleach the wax in its original state, I made some experiments to ascertain whether its colour could be more easily destroy-

ed, after it had been acted upon by nitric acid, and found that, by exposing it spread upon glass to the action of light, it became in the course of three weeks of a pale-straw colour, and on the surface nearly white. The same change was produced by steeping the wax in thin plates in an aqueous solution of oxymuriatic gas, but I have not hitherto succeeded in rendering it perfectly white.

10. Muriatic acid has little action on the wax: when boiled upon it for some hours, it destroys much of its colour.

11. Sulphuric acid changes the colour of the wax to a pale brown, and when water is added, it becomes of a deep rose colour; the inflammability and the fusibility of the wax are slightly impaired by this process.

When heat is applied, the wax is decomposed with the usual phænomena, sulphureous acid is developed, and charcoal deposited.

12. Acetic acid has very little action on the wax, when cold.

When the wax is boiled in this acid, a minute portion is dissolved, and again deposited as the solution cools. By long continued boiling in acetic acid, the wax is rendered nearly white; but when it is afterwards washed with water, and fused, it resumes its former colour.

13. When the wax is fused in oxymuriatic gas, it is rapidly decomposed, and parting with hydrogen and oxygen, muriatic acid and water are formed, and charcoal is deposited.

14. The results of the destructive distillation of the vegetable wax are very analogous to those of bees'-wax.

An acid liquor mixed with a volatile oil are the first products; these are succeeded by a large proportion of a butyraceous oil, and a very small quantity of charcoal affording traces of lime remains in the retort. During the process, a little carburetted hydrogen gas is given off.

I have not considered it necessary to dwell upon the relative proportions of these different products, as they will necessarily vary according to the rapidity with which the distillation is conducted.

§ III.—From the preceding detail of experiments it appears, that although the South American vegetable wax possesses the characteristic properties of bees'-wax, it differs from that substance in many of its chemical habitudes; it also differs from the other varieties of wax, namely, the wax of the Myrica cerifera, of lac, and of white lac.

The attempts which I have made to bleach the wax have been conducted on a small scale; but from the experiments related it appears that, after the colour has been changed by the action of very dilute nitric acid, it may be rendered nearly white by the usual means. I have not had sufficient time to ascertain whether the wax can be more effectually bleached by long continued exposure, nor have I had an opportunity of submitting it to the processes employed by the bleachers of bees'-wax.

Perhaps the most important part of the present inquiry is that which relates to the combustion of the vegetable wax in the form of candles.

The trials which have been made to ascertain its fitness for this purpose are extremely satisfactory; and when the wick is properly proportioned to the size of the candle, the combustion is as perfect and uniform as that of common bees'-wax.

The addition of from one-eighth to one-tenth part of tallow is sufficient to obviate the brittleness of the wax in its pure state, without giving it any unpleasant smell, or materially impairing the brilliancy of its flame. A mixture of three parts of the vegetable wax with one part of bees'-wax also makes very excellent candles.

AMOUNT OF THE EXPORT TRADE FROM ST. PETERSBURGH AND ARCHANGEL.

The following are estimates of the amount of exportation from the Russian ports, notwithstanding the contracted state of commerce with the continent in general. The following account from our intelligent Correspondent at Hull, for the year 1811, is communicated for the information of our mercantile and commercial readers; and we have the satisfaction of informing them that he has promised to supply us with every interesting information from that town, which may come to his knowledge.

EXPORTED FROM PETERSBURGH.

Iron - - -	19,800 tons	Bristles - - -	468 tons
Hemp - -	21,002 do.	Isinglass - -	30 do.
Flax - -	3,700 do.	Cordage - -	546 do.
Tallow - -	6,430 do.	Linseed - -	425 lasts
Pot-ashes -	110 do.	Wheat - - -	488 do.

The above in 905 ships, 129 of which were Americans.

It is estimated, about two-thirds of the above came to England.

N. B. These form the chief articles of export; to enumerate the whole would be tedious.

EXPORTED FROM RIGA.

Hemp - - - - - - - - -	6280 tons
Flax - - - - - - - - -	2820 do.
Iron - - - - - - - - -	1198 do.

No returns at the time of this communication of any other description of goods.

EXPORTED FROM ARCHANGEL IN 141 SHIPS.

Iron - - -	2625 tons	Linseed - -	600 lasts
Hemp - - -	3842 do.	Wheat - -	320 do.
Flax - - -	407 do.	Rye - - -	828 do.
Pot-ashes - -	25 do.	Tar - -	79,366 barrels
Bristles - -	142 do.	Pitch - - -	8659 do.
Cordage - -	364 do.	Tallow - -	1769 tons
Isinglass - -	2 do.		

Not more than two-thirds of the above, it is estimated, would arrive in English ports. Even this estimate shews the great extent of English commerce.

Since the above, we have been favoured with the following list of ships entered at the Port of Hull, during the year 1811.

From different ports in the Baltic - - - -	234
From Malta and Sicily - - - - - - - -	12
From Oporto and Lisbon - - - - - - -	5
From British America - - - - - - - -	27
From United States - - - - - - - - -	5
From West Indies and Bay of Honduras -	4
From Heligoland - - - - - - - - -	21
From Greenland and Davies's Streights Fisheries - - - - - - - - - -	42

ACCOUNT OF THE INTENDED IRON BRIDGE OVER THE THAMES IN LONDON.

To the Editor of the Tradesman, or Commercial Magazine.

Sir,

In requesting your insertion of the following account of the projected iron-bridge over the Thames, between Lon-

don and Southwark, I feel it so immediately connected with the promotion of trade, and the facilitating of commerce, that I cannot for a moment doubt of your compliance with my request. The principal part of it, I am ready to admit, has already appeared in some other periodical works; but the importance of the subject, considered in its nature and various effects, seems to call for all the publicity which it is in the power of every literary miscellany to give. If you agree with me on the subject, and I flatter myself we shall coincide in our opinions, I need only assure you, that its early appearance will not only greatly oblige a respectable class of the readers of the Tradesman, but engage in its service the future labours of,

Your's, &c.

J. M.

Southwark, Jan. 6, 1812.

This bridge is to be constructed with three arches of iron, the centre one of which will be 240 feet span, and the side ones 210 feet each; the piers and abutments are to be formed of stone.

An act of parliament was passed last sessions, incorporating the subscribers to this bridge, and enabling them to raise the necessary funds in transferable shares of 100*l.* each.

Mr. Rennie's estimate amounts to 287,000*l.* for the whole expence of the structure, including an allowance for incidents, of 20 per cent. on the calculation of its actual cost.

The tolls of the bridge, it is computed, will amount annually to 66,387*l.*, supposing that only one-fourth of the carriages and passengers go over it daily, that pass over London Bridge and Blackfriar's Bridge conjointly, at the very moderate tolls of 1*d.* per foot passengers, 4*d.* for carts, gigs, and drays; 8*d.* for waggons; and 1½*d.* for horses.

The following advantages will arise from the completion of this bridge:—It will remedy the great inconveniences and dangers, which arise from the thronged state of the avenues leading to London Bridge; which, on account of the great increase of inhabitants in Southwark, and the parishes and villages adjacent, are become too confined, and insufficient for the necessary conveyance of goods and carriages through them; so that frequent stoppages of long continuance occur in them. This it will effect, by

receiving a great part of the loaded carriages which now pass over London Bridge.

2d. That it will at once add considerably to the value of ground in the Borough, by causing a spacious new street of handsome houses to be made through a part of it.

3d. That an improvement of so much consequence will doubtless be the means of introducing others of nearly equal value, particularly that of the formation of large and convenient streets of communication between Blackfriar's-road and the Borough High-street, and of the making a commodious opening from the foot of London Bridge to Bank-side.

4th. That it will open a new and more convenient avenue from the heart of the city to the neighbouring villages in Kent and Surrey.

5th. That when London Bridge shall be taken down to be rebuilt (or shall be washed down into the abyss excavated beneath it), the new bridge will so well supply its place, that but little interruption or inconvenience will occur to the trade of the Borough and City.

The Corporation of London opposed the Act for the Southwark Bridge on the following grounds.

1st. That while London Bridge existed in its present state, some *additional danger* will arise to barges passing through it at some periods of flood tide.

2dly. That London Bridge, in its present form, is useful as a dam to pen the water up the country.

3dly. That Queen-street is too narrow for a great thoroughfare.

To the first point it was answered, that if London Bridge, as confessed in the objection, is the cause of danger, and opposed to improvements on the river, it ought to be altered.

To the second point it was answered, that the statement therein was untrue; the direct contrary being the fact, as proved by the evidence produced.

To the third point it was answered, that from Thames-street to the river it was intended to widen Queen-street, to more than treble its present dimensions; and that from Thames-street to Cheapside, carriages may diverge into five or six additional streets, near to and almost parallel with Queen-street, so that there will be very little risk of stoppages, such as occur near London Bridge; and besides, that Southwark Bridge and its avenues were not intended as a *substitute* for London Bridge and the passages leading to it, but as an *addition* to them.

The reports of those able engineers, Messrs. Milne,

Revely, Walker, and Rennie (presented to the House of Commons on a former occasion, relative to the state of London Bridge, and the necessity of erecting a new bridge near its site), are annexed to this paper; and shew the most absolute necessity of altering the structure of London Bridge, not only to prevent similar mischiefs to those lamentable ones, the loss of lives and property which it daily occasions, but also to avert that great catastrophe, its sudden destruction, and the consequent inundation that must, according to the evidence, sooner or later happen.

Mr. Revely's report states London Bridge to operate as a dam, which in a tide river will raise the bed both above and below it; and that the river has consequently become three feet shallower below bridge in the memory of man, and of a much less depth above it than below.

That the bridge would have been swept away long since, if two thousand tons of stones had not been thrown in, where the starlings were undermined, in 1763.

That those who object to the forming a new channel for the river (and consequently those who oppose the removal of this dam) on the idea of its letting too much water out of the river, are entirely unacquainted with the subject, since that where a tide reaches twice a day to Kew Bridge, there can be no doubt that the *depth of water* comes from the *operation of the sea*, more than from the downward current; and from thence it must clearly appear, that whatever tends to more easily admit the *operation of the sea* (which is the tide) must tend to *increase* the distance to which that operation must extend *upwards*, and consequently to increase the quantity of water which will afterwards descend.

When the mischief done to the navigation of the river by London Bridge, the great expence of keeping it in repair, and the damage done annually to shipping by the ice it collects, are all considered, it would be fortunate if this bridge should through neglect be so undermined as to be buried in its own ruins.

Mr. Walker's report shews that the floods are so much affected by the obstructions at London Bridge, that the current immediately below runs at little more than the rate of one mile in an hour, which gives time for the mud mixed with the water to subside, and thus lessens the depth of the upper part of the pool.

In spring tides, the floods rise nine feet perpendicularly below bridge before the current begins to run up through the arches; which accounts for the flow of the tide above

bridge being only four hours, and the ebb eight hours and a quarter.

The strength of the current, caused by the small arches, the broad starlings, and the water-works, tend to ruin the navigation of the river, to destroy many lives annually, and to undermine the bridge itself.

During the time of severe frost, the narrowness of the water-ways impedes the floating ice, and soon forms a solid body across the river, and puts a total stop to the commerce of the port then, which would not be the case if the bridge had a proper water-way.

For these reasons, London Bridge is a great injury to the navigation of the river above and below it, lessens the depth of the river, and at times of frost, shuts it up entirely.

Mr. Milne's report shews, that it is probable a time will arrive, when, from accumulation of ice and other circumstances, London Bridge shall be thrown down, as has been the case with several old bridges of similar construction.

If the pass at London Bridge were free, the velocity of the tides would be so much greater upwards, that a voyage would be performed in less time and more safety through deeper water at each period of the tide. During the seven hours of ebb, nothing can pass upwards through the bridge, the same happens downwards during the five hours of flow; so that at these times the trade in one direction is suspended.

After these facts are known, it is astonishing that this bridge should ever have been considered with admiration; and still more so, that 90,000*l.* were laid out, and the revenues of a large estate appropriated to keep it in repair.

Here a note states, that the repairs of the bridge do not cost less than 5000*l.* annually.

The select report of the Committeee of the House of Commons states, that they find that, notwithstanding the large sum of money applied annually to the repair of London Bridge, the methods employed to secure it, have in several instances proved wholly ineffectual; that the bed of the river suffers perpetual and increasing injury from shoals, occasioned partly from the obstruction of the natural course of the tide, and partly from the dispersion of materials employed for the purpose of strengthening the bridge; and that for several hours every day the navigation downwards is impracticable for small boats, and

hazardous for large craft, and all navigation upwards totally prevented.

That the structure of the bridge is so defective in its original design, that no art or expence can secure it from the danger of *sudden destruction.*

The committee *are therefore of opinion, that the rebuilding of London Bridge upon improved principles, would be a measure of substantial economy in itself, as well as subservient to purposes of still greater importance.*

Mr. Rennie, in his examination before the House of Commons, stated, that he had lately examined the state of London Bridge, and found several of its arches, and one pier, cracked in several places. The pier of the great arch, and the small arch on the south side of the pier, are split in two places, in one of which he inserted a pole six feet long, and in the other, one five feet deep. The starling of the second pier, from the large arch on the north side, has most of its timber gone, and the rubble is quite exposed to the face of the current. That the bridge acts as a dam, and prevents the tide from flowing so far upwards as if would do naturally. That the shoals above and below are caused by the bridge, and increased by the rubble thrown in, necessary to keep the bridge from being carried away. That it very much obstructs the navigation of the river; and in case of accumulation of ice, is liable to be suddenly overthrown, as happened to Kelso Bridge over the Tweed, built in the same manner on stone starlings; and that in this case the water would overflow all the country on the sides of the river for a great distance above and below the bridge.

It was also stated in evidence, by several lightermen, that between twenty and thirty lives, and 40,000*l.* worth of property, were lost annually in the vortex of London Bridge.

Remarks.—Speculative projects are of two kinds, which may either be well or ill-founded, as they are directed to objects manifestly beneficial, or to schemes and machinations of a chimerical or deceptious nature. Some of these seem to address the hesitating enquirer, in a language too plain to be misunderstood, and to tell him to trust to his eyes and ears, and to exercise a little common sense and reason, either for their adoption or rejection. Others are of a more complicated and intricate nature, which may frequently depend for success upon various contingences, the probability of which, like many other

pursuits, must be canvassed and investigated, before the definitive decision can be made, on which their practical execution must rest. Of the utility of the preceding plan, however, there is little need, in our opinion, for the smallest hesitation. If the facts or estimates are well founded, the accompanying observations and inferences will speak for themselves. The vast advantages of Blackfriar's bridge are well known; and there may still be some persons surviving, who can include in their observations the incalculable benefits of Westminster Bridge. But to say more at present would only be to light a candle to the sun.

BUONAPARTE & CROMWELL: A PARALLEL.

[Continued from page 37.]

THE second question proposed in the original publication was, if there be such a beast, whether this be a beast of game that the world is to give law to, or a beast of prey, to destroy with all means that are allowable and fair?

Of supreme magistrates, who become tyrants, there are various opinions; and some think that the world must bear with them, as children are to do with bad parents, submitting to them patiently, whilst others consider them as subject to the supreme law of public safety. Certainly, however, they ought not to be judgers of their own actions. On the other hand, none can or will indemnify an usurper, who has no other title than that of being stronger, or maintain the obligation of obedience, the claim to which arises from this source, and its compliance proceeds only from fear and necessity. The consideration of what a tyrant is, the nature of his crimes, and his relative situation in a state, is of the utmost importance to enable us to determine how far individuals may claim the right of inflicting punishment, which in other cases is reserved to God and the magistrate. The enemy of human society is entitled to no benefit from society; the subverter of the laws has no claims for protection from the law; and he, who, by the magnitude of his villanies, secures himself against all ordinary rules of justice, can have no right to the forms of justice. The end of society is not barely to live at large, dispersed like animals, but to live happily, and in a way correspondent to the dignity of human nature. Society is essentially necessary for us. We can neither singly enjoy nor preserve, what, by mutual aids,

we may fully accomplish. Our passions must be restrained by the laws of reason and justice, and kept within the limits, allowable by the common advantages of society. The natural perverseness of man's will must be subdued by good laws; his appetites, whether of avarice, lust, or ambition, without such a check, would make society as unsafe, or perhaps more so than solitude. Subjection and submission to laws, therefore, are indispensable. It was the remark of Aristotle, that tyranny is against the law of nature, or the law of human society, in which human nature is preserved. Laws are above magistrates, says Tully, as magistrates are above the people. The tyrant who submits to no law, but only as his will and his lust suggest and excite, is no magistrate, but a disease which destroys society. Where all are slaves, it is no more than a great family: and if men are only members of the Thuilleries or St. Cloud, for instance, (and why not, as well as at Whitehall, in the time of Cromwell?) and may be summoned thither whensoever their master pleaseth, what can they expect but that it shall soon come to their turns to have their ears bored through at the door-posts? Is not such a person, whosoever he may be, to be reasonably ranked amongst those savage beasts, which disdain to unite in any herd with others, having no other defence than their own strength; who make a prey of all that are weaker, and, by the same rules of justice, render themselves by such a conduct the prey of others who may become stronger than themselves. Was this true of the usurper Cromwell in those times? and is it not equally true of the continental tyrant in our own?

The tyrant, who defends his injustice by strength beyond the power of the magistrate to oppose, becomes superior to all punishment of law or justice. The safety of mankind, says the author, in such a case, were but ill provided for, if there were no kind of justice to reach great villanies. The stroke of some generous hand alone, says he, can dispense this justice; for he who flies or crushes justice in the court, must expect to find it in the street, and he that goes armed against every man, arms every man against himself. Cicero says, there are two ways of deciding differences, by judgment and arbitration, or by force; the one proper to men, the other to beasts, so that when the former cannot be obtained, we must have recourse to the latter. By the law of nature, when no justice can be had, every man may be his own magistrate, and do justice for himself. To suppose that we are to pursue right by a course of law only, must suppose that

law and justice is to be obtained; otherwise the law would become a protector, not the redresser, of injuries. Men, who are partial to themselves, must not be allowed to be their own judges, where others can be found: but, when laws have no place, men can never be forbidden to repel force by force, and left without defence against oppressors or assassins.

As a common robber of mankind, the tyrant is superior to all law. Ought the person of one who sets law at defiance, to whom nothing is sacred, nothing is inviolable, to possess such a privilege? By false names and false appearances, we suffer our senses to be dazzled. What can be more absurd in nature, or contrary to common sense, than to call him a thief, and kill him who comes alone, or with a few to rob me, and to obey him who robs me with troops and regiments. No Englishman is ignorant, that it is his birth-right to be master of his own estate, and that none can command any part of it, but by his own consent, either expressly or virtually: and it is not only lawful, but glorious, to do ourselves right, and to deserve of mankind, when we can bring a common robber to no other justice, to free the world of such an universal pirate, under whom, and for whose purposes, the lesser beasts of prey make their continual depredations.

An usurper, who possesseth himself of government by force, and by force retains it, is in a state of war with every man. Against such an open enemy every thing is lawful. I am an enemy, says Scævola to Porsena, and an enemy I would have killed. "Every man is a soldier against common enemies, and those that are traitors to the commonwealth," says Tertullian. Though the Grecians suffered not murderers to come into their temples, yet Xenophon tells us, in those very temples they erected statues to the destroyers of tyrants, and placed their deliverers among the gods. And to this Cicero bears the most ample testimony. Amongst the Romans, by the Valerian law, it was lawful for any man to kill any person who assumed magistracy, without the command of the people; and Plutarch states it in terms of greater severity, if he did but aspire to tyranny. The Consular law, after the suppression of the tyranny of the decemvirate, made it lawful to kill any man that went about to create magistrates, without reference and appeal to the people. With a tyrant, saith Brutus in Appian, the Romans think no faith is to be kept, no religion of an oath to be observed; and the reason is stated by Seneca, that whatever

there was of mutual obligation, his destruction of the laws of human society hath dissolved. Even those who thought that an enemy might be treated improperly and villanously, that faith was to be kept even with perfidious persons, and that arms were to be managed with justice as well as courage; concluded that a tyrant could receive no injustice, but that of being suffered to live, and that the readiest way of destroying him was the most lawful. Against beasts of prey, too, the toil and the net are used, as well as the spear and the lance. The detestation of a tyrant was so great, that many thought he had absolutely forfeited all title to humanity, and all kind of protection; and left his wife without any guard for her chastity, exposed to every person who might choose to violate her.

From the law of God the author no less strongly infers the same conclusion. Certain death is there decreed to the man who would do presumptuously, and submit to no decision of justice. But neither that nor any other law could have been effectual, if there were no way to put it in execution. But process and citation have no place in the case of a tyrant; and no formal remedies can possibly avail. Where the malefactor has power to condemn the judge, little hopes of justice are to be entertained. Ehud's dagger is then the only remedy against a tyrant. All laws must be fruitless, and the people helpless, without this expedient. This is that high court of justice, to which Moses summoned the Egyptians, to which Ehud brought Eglon, to which Samson forced the Philistines, to which Samuel called Agag, and to which Jehoiada dragged the she-tyrant Athaliah.

The case of Moses and the Egyptian was justified by the necessity. His brother had need of his help against the continued oppression of the other. No other means of justice was attainable. Moses had at that time, no more authority than any other private individual; but the law of nature authorized him to oppose force to force, and to make justice when it could not be found. Moses vindicated the cause of one individual; our arguments comprehend the cause of a whole people. Moses saw his brethren's burdens and their blows; we behold our brethren's burdens, imprisonments, and deaths. But if it were lawful for Moses to kill an Egyptian which oppressed one man because there was no way to procure an orderly course of justice against him; it cannot be unlawful to kill him that oppresses a whole nation, and one that justice as little reaches as it defends. Ehud's example

shews almost the only remedy against a tyrant, and the way to deliver an oppressed people from slavery. The scripture shews what the lord thought a fit message to send a tyrant. In Samson's story private injuries are deemed sufficient grounds to make war upon the Philistines. Though opposed by his servile countrymen, he knew what the law of nature allowed him, where other laws have no place, and thought himself justified in doing to them, as they did unto him. But our injuries are not less, and we have no other ways of reparation. The firebrands, or the jaw-bone, if the first weapons our just fury can lay hold on, may be lawfully employed against that uncircumcised Philistine which oppresses us. We have also the men of Levi, as he had the men of Judah, crying him up as a ruler over us; Samuel, on the same grounds of retaliation, did justice with his own hand upon Agag. No law is more natural and just than his argument to that purpose. Let such as exercise tyranny remember what their apostle Machiavel tells them, that, in contestations for preserving their liberty, people many times use moderation, but when they come to vindicate it, their rigour exceeds all reasonable bounds; like beasts which have been kept up, and are afterwards let loose, they always are more fierce and cruel. One more example, that of Jehoiada, is next to be noticed; who hid the heir to the crown in the house of the Lord for six years. During this interval, amongst the rest of God's mercies there, he was doubtless contriving the tyrant's destruction, who had aspired to the crown by destroying those that had the right to it. The justice and equity of the action was his sole justification; and any man might lawfully have done the same, having the same motives. She was immediately removed from the temple, to preserve that holy place from the pollution of a tyrant's blood, which was fitter to be shed on a dunghill; and providence ordered, that the punishment should be inflicted near the very place where she had caused the blood royal to be spilled, and which she had so long unjustly possessed. For this Jehoiada was obeyed as a king during his life, and, for the good he had wrought in Israel, was honoured as a king after his death, by being interred among them.

Let us observe, in this last instance, that Jehoiada declared the partizans of Athaliah should be put to death. Confederates with tyrants and supporters of their oppressions, should meet the punishment of tyrants. Even Maltan, the priest of Baal, and the preacher of tyranny, must expect to fall with Baal and his tyrannical devotee.

Those priests who sacrifice to our Baal, or idol of a magistrate, deserve as well to be hanged before their pulpits, as Maltan did to fall before his altars. Can any one who reads these strong allusions to the conduct of the English usurper, be at a loss to discover the most striking similitude in the conduct of the Corsican despot?

Perhaps it may be objected, that these scripture examples relate to persons inspired of God, that gave them an authority for their actions, to which we can have no pretensions; and therefore we must not draw examples from their conduct, without the same species of justification. But it may be answered, with Milton, that if God commanded these things, it shews that they were not only lawful, but laudable. Yet neither Samson nor Samuel alleged any other vindication, than that of retaliation, and the manifest justice of their actions. Moses was not favoured with the call from the bush until forty years after he had slain the Egyptian Jehoiada, in like manner alleged no prophetical authority for what he did, than the common call of all men to do all actions of justice within their power, when the ordinary course of justice ceases.

But farther, opposition to an existing government may be deemed improper, when the people are settled in the pursuit of their callings and traffic at home and abroad, making use of the laws, and appealing to the courts of justice; which may be held as evidence of the people's tacit consent to the government, and its being reputed lawful, and the people's obedience voluntary. But it may be answered, that if commerce and pleadings were sufficient to prove the people's consent, no tyranny ever existed for many weeks. Caligula and Nero, upon such an argument, have wrong done them in being called tyrants, and the conspirators against them should have been denominated rebels; for we cannot admit, that, during the whole time of their reigns, their shops were shut, and neither their temples nor their courts of justice opened. Did the Israelites desist from traffic, pleadings, and public acts, during the whole eighteen years of their subjection to Eglon, and the six years of Athaliah? but, on the admissi n of this principle, both Ehud and Jehoiada should have been pronounced traitors, the one for killing his king, and the other his queen.

[To be concluded in our next.]

AN ESSAY ON THE ART OF MANUFACTURING SUGAR FROM THE GRAPE.

EXTRACTED FROM THE JOURNAL DE PHYSIQUE OF M. FOUQUES.

THOUGH the present scarcity of West India sugar in France, gives to this and similar processes a peculiar and local interest, we think that it will not be unacceptable to our readers to have a short sketch of the means employed, at the suggestion of the most eminent French chemists, and under the anxious patronage of the French ruler, to extract from their indigenous resources a supply of this most important article of domestic comfort and luxury.

M. Fouques begins by observing, that as the quality of the raw Muscovado sugar obtained from the grape-syrup depends essentially on that of the syrup itself, it is of consequence to procure the latter in the first instance as fine and colourless as possible. For this purpose very great advantage is gained by impregnating the *must* or grape-juice with the fumes of burning sulphur (sulphureous acid) a process which has been used for ages occasionally, but solely to wine, and for the purpose of checking the vinous fermentation when it threatens to go too far, and pass to the acetous. This *sulphuring* (or *stumming*, as it is technically called in the cyder counties in England) is performed by burning bundles of matches in the tun, and shaking the liquor in contact with it till it has absorbed the sulphureous acid gas. In the present instance, it is not to the new wine, but to the unfermented must that it is employed, and it has the double advantage of altogether preventing fermentation (which is a sugar destroying process), and also of most materially lessening the extractive matter of the must, which is the principle that gives the sugar-maker the most trouble, by occasioning a dark brown tinge and a deliquescent quality in his sugar. An additional advantage of sulphuring is, that it promotes the subsidence and separation of a variety of other substances naturally contained in the must, and gives a much cleaner and thinner syrup than has been yet obtained by any other method.

The must being sulphured thrice a day for three days together, and the clear liquor having been each day drawn off from the dregs, the following is the further series of processes employed by the author of this paper.

Saturation of the Acid.—The clarified and sulphurated

must being brought to a moderate scalding heat in a boiler, a quantity of lixiviated vegetable ashes or chalk, or marble-dust (according as either can be the easiest procured) is stirred into the liquor, which produces a brisk effervescence, and this addition should be made as long as the effervescence lasts. The proof that the liquor is saturated with calcareous earth, is when a little of it, taken out and mixed with syrup of violets, gives it a greenish tinge. The taste of the liquor is changed by this addition, and becomes flat and mawkish-sweet, very different from that of the unsaturated liquor. Where chalk or marble cannot be had, the ashes of the vine-twigs may be used with advantage.

Some have supposed that the saturation of the liquor could be told by its ceasing to curdle hot milk, but M. Proust has shewn this to be a mistake, since the uncrystallizable syrup or molasses of the grape-juice, however well its acid be saturated, will always curdle milk, which inconvenience has in fact been much felt in attempting to prepare confectionary from this imperfect substitute for the cane-sugar.

Clarification.—The saturated liquor, after having been allowed to clarify by rest for about twelve hours, is put into a boiler, and a small quantity of the serum of fresh bullocks' blood, beaten up with a little of the liquor, is stirred into the boiler, and a brisk fire kindled. The scum rises to the top, and is taken off with a scumming-dish as long as any appears. After this the fire is raised to boiling, and the liquor is lessened by evaporation, assisted by constant agitation, till it marks thirty-two or thirty-three degrees of the arcometic when boiling. This should be done as quickly as possible, as a continuance of the boiling turns the syrup brown: but at the same time a provision should be made for cooling the syrup rapidly, when enough boiled, as a burnt taste and red brown colour is given by too much heat.

Muscovado.—The syrup, when cooled, is preserved for twenty-five or thirty days in casks; after which it is laded into large earthen jars, slightly covered, to keep out dust and insects, and exposed to a cool air in a dry place. Small crystalline grains soon form, which gradually increase, till at last the whole becomes a pretty firm mass, but thoroughly soaked (like a wet sponge) with a thick fluid which will not solidify, and must therefore be separated by other means. The whole is then put into sacks of rather open cloth, glazed and calendered to take off the nap, and allowed to drain for some time; the sacks are then put into a wine-press, and pressed at first very gently,

afterwards with increasing power, till all the syrup has drained out, and at the bottom of each sack is left a hard cake of raw muscovado. The syrups, together with the washings of the sacks, are then separately clarified, by boiling with whites of eggs and coarse charcoal-powder, and in this state they come to the consumer as a rich syrup useful for many domestic purposes.

Refined Moist Sugar.—The cakes of grained sugar in the sacks are first broken up, moistened, and again pressed as before, which makes them whiter and purer, though still yellow; and this might answer the purposes of ordinary moist cane-sugar, if it were not that it contains a quantity of tartrile of lime, which earthy salt has the peculiar inconvenience of curdling milk whenever it comes in contact with it. The separation of this tartrile of lime is attended with much difficulty; but it cannot be dispensed with. The author effects it by a judicious repetition of the former operations of alternate boiling and cooling, and clarification with white of eggs and charcoal-powder, the particulars of which it is not necessary to detail in this place.

After this stage of the business is past, the product is a dry, grey, hard grain-sugar, fit for a variety of domestic uses, but still retaining some of the brown syrup.

The last degree of whiteness is given to the sugar, in this form, in the following ingenious manner: a damped cloth is spread upon a table, over which is sprinkled a thin layer of the sugar; another damp cloth is laid upon this; and thus alternate layers of cloth and sugar are piled up under the press till it is full. On working the press, the pores of the damp cloth suck out, as it were, from the sugar the syrup which rendered it still impure and coloured; and, by repeating this operation two or three times, a very white and pure article is obtained. The cloths are of course rinsed out, and the rinsings, which are rich in syrup, are reserved for further purposes.

It may be observed, that the process of claying has been used in a variety of ways, but without any adequate success.

Loaf Sugar.—What is termed by the author loaf-sugar, is, in fact, only the last-mentioned refined grain-sugar rammed into a conical mould; or else re-dissolved, and poured into a mould to crystallize. It appears, therefore, to be neither better nor worse than the refined grain-sugar.

An important caution is given in the preparation of grape-sugar, which is, that the drying must always be

performed, either by mere pressure, or by exposure to a dry air, if cool. The heat of summer turns the surface brown, like a sliced apple; and hence, of course, all *stoving*, such as is used with cane-sugar, is entirely inadmissible. Even when in solution, the refined grape-sugar turns brown in the boiler, by a brisk naked heat, when the liquor becomes much concentrated; so that, under these circumstances, evaporation by the heat of vapour or steam is much preferable; which has also an additional advantage, as it prevents the tartrile of lime that separates in the boiling, from encrusting the boiler to a degree which is often difficult to be detached.

The author calculates, that 100 lb. of must contain sufficient acid to saturate 1¼ lb. of chalk.

With regard to the total products, he finds that 450 lb. of must, taken from the ripe white grape, give from 100 lb. to 120 lb. of syrup, when boiling and concentrated, which yields spontaneously 72 lb. to 75 lb. of foul crystals; which last are reduced to 60 lb. by the press; which again give, by refining, 50 lb. of good grain-sugar; from which lastly, from 25 lb. to 30 lb. of very white sugar may be extracted, that will bear carriage, and be fit for most purposes.

Besides this, a considerable quantity of rich syrups are got, that may be used in a variety of ways.

CHEMICAL ANALYSIS OF THE GREEN SHELL OF THE WALNUT.

BY M. H. BRACONNOT, PROFESSOR OF NATURAL HISTORY, AND MEMBER OF THE ACADEMIC SOCIETY OF NANCY.

The shell of the walnut is, as every person knows, white in its interior when recent, but very speedily becomes coloured, and is at length of a very deep brown, which must be entirely owing to the contact of air; for when plunged in boiling water it may be preserved some time without undergoing the least alteration. If it be exposed to the atmospheric air under a bell-glass, the oxygen is speedily converted, almost entirely, into carbonic acid; the shell becomes of a black colour; there is also without doubt water produced: so that altogether the phænomena of a real slow combustion take place. The oxygenated muriatic acid appears to have a different kind of action upon

it, for instead of blackening, it causes it to take a yellow colour; the same effect is produced by the nitric acid.

In order to proceed to the analysis of the matters contained in the shell, I bruised a certain quantity of it in a marble mortar; the expressed juice was passed through a linen cloth and filtered; there remained upon the filter a green fecula, which soon passed into a deep brown by the contact of air; this matter, washed and dried, was put into some alcohol, which extracted from it the green resin common to most vegetables: the residue, insoluble in alcohol, was still coloured, and soft to the touch; a portion of it was mixed with weak nitric acid, which converted it into a thick viscid substance, soluble in water; alcohol produced from this solution a white flocculent precipitate. The same coloured residue, mixed with water, containing a small quantity of potass, produced an abundant quantity of a very light substance, of a deep red colour, similar to the crassamentum of the blood: lastly, another portion of the same residue was treated by boiling water, and formed starch jelly; whence it results, that the substance contained in such large quantity in the walnut shell is starch, contaminated by the colouring matter.

The juice of the walnut rind recently filtered is of an amber colour, of an acrid and acid taste, mixed with some bitterness: the acrid principle appears to be readily destructible, for the recent juice when left to stand some days, in changing its yellow colour for a blackish brown, where it has been in contact with the air, loses also its acrid taste, and becomes decidedly acid; at the same time there are formed on its surface black pellicles, which are soon renewed after they have been removed: these pellicles, carefully collected and well washed, afford by drying, a black brittle substance, of a shining vitreous fracture, and very like asphaltum or Jew's pitch, but burning without flame, and therefore resembling charcoal. This coaly matter is soluble in potass, and is precipitated in flakes by an acid. It may be obtained more easily by evaporating, at a gentle heat, the recent juice, and diluting the residue with water: the supernatant liquor is of an agreeable acid taste; whence it results, that the acrid and bitter principle is entirely destroyed, and appears to be converted into the black matter nearly in the state of coal. No acetic vapours are disengaged from this same extract by the addition of sulphuric acid, even when assisted by heat; it does not therefore contain any acetic acid.

From what has been said, it appears, that in the rind of the walnut, as well as in many other herbaceous plants,

there exists a matter held in solution in their fluids, the radical of which is hydro-carbon, more or less easily decomposable by the simple contact of air, which thus favours the production of water in rendering the carbon predominant. It will readily be conceived, that it is impossible to have a very exact notion of a matter so little permanent. Nevertheless, we perceive that it is scarcely coloured in the vessels of the plant, and that the action of air or caloric changes it greatly, causing it to pass by degrees into the state of extractive; another principle but badly defined, unstable in its elements, appearing rather to be the result of a decomposition, than a true product of living nature.*

The juice of the walnut shell, analysed by different reagents, afforded the following results.

It strongly reddened the infusion of turnsole. A solution of gelatin produced from it a slight precipitate, which must be owing to the tannin it contains. The sulphate of iron strikes so deep a green colour with this juice that the liquor appears black; it afforded no precipitate, even by time, on account of the uncombined acid in the mixture, which is capable of giving a fine gray colour to wool and silk. Oxalate of ammonia indicated the presence of lime in this juice. Nitrate of barytes did not produce any sulphate. The nitrate of silver acts upon the juice, so as to detect the presence of the hydro-carbon radical, for it produced from it an abundant precipitate which speedily became coloured, and put on a metallic brilliant appearance by the re-action of the vegetable matter upon the oxygen of the oxide of silver: this precipitate was only partly soluble in the nitric acid, and left a coaly residue. Alkalies colour the walnut juice of a deep red, and produce precipitates which contain lime.

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* Having occasion to examine some extract of the *Rhus taxicodendron* prepared a few years ago, I made the following experiment. I applied some of it upon the skin of an animal, and caused him to swallow some large doses of it, without his experiencing any untoward effects; while a drop of juice from the stalk of the plant occasioned a violent inflammation upon the skin, terminating in an ulcer. The principles of plants therefore approaching to the state of extract, undergo an alteration which continually increases with time, and which must considerably vary their action upon the animal economy. Apothecaries might to a certain degree prevent this alteration, by inclosing the extracts in a state of perfect dryness in well-stopped vessels, for the humidity which they contain, or tend to absorb, contributes no less than the contact of air to destroy the weak equilibrium of some of their elements.

If at the end of a certain time an acid is poured upon the liquor, another flocculent precipitate takes place, which when dried becomes black, vitreous in its fracture, and appears of a similar nature with the pellicles which are formed on the surface of the juice exposed to the air. Acetate of lead produced from the juice a flocculent precipitate of a whitish colour, and very abundant, entirely soluble in distilled vinegar. This precipitate, decomposed by sulphuretted hydrogen, afforded a coloured liquor of a very strong acid taste, combined with austereness; a sediment was produced in it by gelatin, and with acetate of lead it gave a precipitate soluble in vinegar. This acid of walnut, submitted to a gentle heat, afforded some small imperfect crystals swimming in an uncrystallizable liquor: the whole was mixed with carbonate of lime, and after having heated the mixture, which contained an excess of acid, it was filtered. I obtained by evaporation a thick coloured mass formed by the union of a number of small acicular crystals: this salt, treated with cold water, was partly dissolved by it; the solution, evaporated to dryness, left a brown residue like varnish, with the same habitudes as malate of lime, holding some tannin, which precipitated iron of a blackish-blue colour. That portion of the calcareous salt which was not dissolved in the cold water, was treated by weak sulphuric acid, which separated from it some citric acid still contaminated by malic acid.

The juice of the walnut shell thus freed from a part of the substances it held in solution was still coloured; the superacetate of lead produced another precipitate from it, and rendered the supernatant liquor nearly colourless: this precipitate furnished by analysis the same products obtained above, viz. malic acid, colouring matter and tannin, which had escaped the first precipitation on account of the presence of the acetic acid which was predominant in the liquor.

The fæces remaining after the expression of the juice were infused in alcohol, which extracted from them a green resinous matter; they were then boiled in water to free them from the starch and colouring matter which were contained in them: thus prepared, they were digested in weak nitric acid, which separated phosphate and oxalate of lime: these were precipitated from the acid liquor by ammonia. The method I employ to obtain separately these two earthy salts, so often combined in vegetables, is founded upon the property possessed by dis-

tilled vinegar, when diluted with water, of dissolving the phosphate of lime without sensibly attacking the oxalate with the same base.

Although the walnut shell has a particular odour, it offers nothing remarkable by distillation in a water bath; there is only obtained an insipid liquor, which is of a brownish colour: on the surface of this liquor may be perceived small variegated crystals, which are at length deposited in the form of a sediment at the bottom of the fluid. The incineration of the shell gave for its product potass, carbonate of lime, phosphate of lime, and oxide of iron.

From this analysis it appears that the green fleshy shell of the walnut contains,

1. Starch. 2. An acrid and bitter substance extremely destructible, and which is converted into a carbonaceous state by the contact of air. 3. Malic acid. 4. Tannin. 5. Citric acid. 6. Phosphate of lime. 7. Oxalate of lime. 8. Potass.

RUINOUS STATE OF THE WEST INDIA ISLANDS.

[Continued from p. 6.]

I NOW appeal to the sensible and to the unprejudiced, and it is to them only I appeal, (for we may as well *give physic to the dead*, as to reason with the enthusiast in error,) whether the above testimony does not answer the second question proposed. I will not rest here for authorities. Dalzel, another traveller in Africa, relates, "*that the Africans frequently sacrifice their prisoners as a religious ceremony.*" Stedman and Vanguil affirm, that "*human flesh is eaten by the negroes in Africa,*" *and that regular shops are opened for the disposal of the human carcase.* The second question, I humbly think is satisfactorily answered. I now attend to the third.

That the wants and happiness of the negroes, when under slavery in the West Indies, are carefully attended to, I must ask for authority, in referring again to a traveller, keeping back my own testimony in the case. Bolingbroke undertook his travels to the West Indies, under the determination to enquire, and witness, the situation of the negroes in those islands. I find he says, "*he made it a regular question with the negroes, if they would change*

their situation, and return to Africa; and ninety-nine out of every hundred would be found to prefer their present to their former condition." *

I feel satisfied in my own mind, that this evidence fully answers the third and last question, put out as inquiries upon this subject. I leave the effects which the present statements will have, on the generous reader's mind to himself, and intrude upon him further, with a few more of my observations.

Mr. Wilberforce and his party, calling themselves abolitionists, have built their splendid fame *upon the expected ruin of many men.* Taking upon themselves to speak on a subject which they do not understand, and appealing to the feelings instead of the understanding of men, they have triumphed, in gratifying their enthusiastic minds at the expence and ruin of their fellow creatures. At first, they *deceived* their colleagues; in the end, *they will cause ruin to the oppressed.* The *mere theorist is dangerous to the society he lives in*; and I think, with the late Frederick of Prussia, *that, to ruin any country, is to let it be governed by philosophers.* The bare mention of the "Slave Trade" *sounds horrible;* but after a little explanation, it is stripped of its *seeming injustice.* And further I say, *that it is not a slave trade of freemen, but it is a trade of slaves, whose original condition, in their own country, was hereditary and abject slavery, bettering now their former condition from undoubted proofs.*

Without offering or meaning an indecent comparison, I do truly affirm, without a fear of contradiction, *that the situation and happiness of the negro slaves in the West Indies are far better than the poor class of men's condition in the British empire.* Humanity is not shocked in those islands at the miserable objects *in the common pathway,* which daily are seen in this metropolis. Every man must give *an asylum* to his slave. The law subjects him to a penalty if he does not. Misery in all its shocking and horrible forms is found in this great Europe of freemen. I challenge *the tongues of envy and malice to reproach* the West India islands with such abject conditions of men. The peasantry in England and Ireland *seldom or never dance,* nor do they so often *show such indications of happiness and content, and even festivity, as the slaves do in the western colonies.* I have been sumptuously treated with *wine and good cheer in a slave negroe's house.* The poor

* See "Bolingbroke's Voyage to Demerara."

labouring man in England *does as much as he can* with his earnings, to provide himself and family with *potatoes* through the week, and perhaps to taste of animal food but on Sundays.

I have known negroes who would not leave their former master's house after *they were made free;* and I have known others who have refused their freedoms, thinking that they would be left destitute after it. It is common to witness *the greatest grief and lamentations among the negroes, when a master is quitting the country in which he lives.* In the name of common sense, are not these proofs, that the poor beings called negroes, who are snatched from certain misery and destruction in Africa, are *made happier in life*, by giving them employment in another country. *They themselves freely and openly confess it.* Let us look how they are punished for faults and crimes in the colonies. In Europe, among freemen, and by a court of freemen, a seaman and a soldier are sometimes sentenced to receive *from* ONE HUNDRED *to* ONE THOUSAND *lashes*; MEN WHO HAVE FOUGHT THEIR BATTLES AND PROTECTED THEIR LIBERTY. A master in the West Indies *cannot*, without answering to the laws for it, *nor can a magistrate*, by the settled laws of the country, give, or sentence a slave to receive, more at one infliction *than forty lashes.* Would not an ideot perceive on which side *humanity lies?*

The abolitionists tell me, you take care of your slave negroes' wants *from interested views.* I answer them, I do. I ask in return, pray why don't you and your countrymen take more care of *the distresses*, that strangers and every body see in Europe? They say then to me, that there are all kinds of receptacles for those objects, and that charity does as much as it can for the wretched; but that it is to be expected, in all large communities, there will be a great deal of misery. I then deny to them, that *the European's charity can be as stimulating as the interested views of the West Indian*, for if it were, *and that every man united in Europe to suppress misery*, as every owner of a slave is obliged to give him an *asylum* in the *colonies*, it follows, that there would be *as little distress in one place as in the other.*

After he has exhausted himself in this way, he tells me, that the slave trade encourages and kindles the spirit of war among the Africans, and that by abolishing it, the people will forget their animosities, and will turn their thoughts to civilization. I boldly contradict these *theorists*, by the authority of men who speak *practically.* I

again refer to travellers. Dalzel relates, "that an African prince does not go to war with a neighbouring state to procure prisoners to sell them to the trade ships."

He further says, "That an African prince was once told of the debates in the British Parliament on the subject of the slave trade. He answered the white man who told him of them, thus:—Your countrymen, who allege we go to war for the purpose of supplying your ships with slaves, are greatly mistaken; besides, if white men choose to remain at home, and no longer visit this country for the purpose that has usually brought him hither, will black men cease to make war? I answer, by no means. And if there be no ships to receive their captives, what will become of them? I answer for you—they will be put to death."

After Parke has detailed his observations on the state and sources of slavery in Africa, he concludes by saying, in chap. 22. p. 294—"Such are the general outlines of that system of slavery which prevails in Africa; and it is evident, from its nature and extent, that it is a system of no modern date. It probably had its origin in the remote ages of antiquity, before the Mahometans explored a path across the desert. How far it is maintained and supported by the slave traffic, which for two hundred years the nations of Europe have carried on with the nations on the coast, it is neither in my province nor in my power to explain. If my sentiments should be required concerning the effect which a discontinuance of that commerce would produce on the manners of the natives, I should have no hesitation in observing, that, in the present unenlightened state of their minds, my opinion is, the effect would neither be so extensive or beneficial as many wise and worthy persons fondly expect."

[To be continued.]

INTRODUCTION TO CHEMISTRY, &c.

[Continued from p. 22, Vol. VIII.]

EVERY body possesses a portion of latent heat; but, the quantity is greater or less according to the capacity of the body for retaining it, in which respect some substances differ considerably from others.

When two bodies are mixed together which possess equal capacities for retaining their caloric, (the equilibrium in this case not being disturbed, whereupon only it is that

latent heat becomes perceptible to our senses,) they unite without giving any sign of possessing caloric. If, however, two bodies are mixed together, having different capacities for retaining this substance, though both will indicate the same degree of temperature before being mixed, i. e. both seem to have equal portions of caloric; yet, on their union, as the equilibrium will then be disturbed, a quantity of caloric will quit the one body and go to the other to restore the equilibrium between them, and in passing from the one to the other it will be perceptible to us, and the more so the greater the difference in the capacities for retaining caloric, of the bodies that are mixed.

The following two experiments will be striking proofs of what is above said.

Take equal quantities of sulphuric acid and water, two bodies differing considerably in their capacities for retaining caloric, the sulphuric acid being capable of retaining a much greater portion of caloric than the water, especially if it is strong. Mix them together, and immediately upon their union, so much caloric will be emitted as to become perceptible to the person who holds the phial, or other vessel, in which they are mixed. This emission or production of caloric, however, will be much more apparent in the following experiment.

Take six drachms of fuming spirit of nitre, two drachms of strong sulphuric acid, and six drachms of oil of turpentine, all of which substances will indicate the same degree of temperature before being mixed. Put the oil of turpentine into a cup, and when ready to make the experiment, mix the spirit of nitre and sulphuric acid together, and add the mixture to the turpentine oil: whereupon, so great a portion of caloric will be extricated as to produce a considerable quantity of flame. This experiment must be made with great caution, as the quantity of flame produced is so great, that it would materially injure those making the experiment were they to stand near it. The most advisable way to keep at a distance, is, to put the spirit of nitre and sulphuric acid into another cup or glass fixed on the end of a long rod of wood, which may be held at the other end, and the mixture in the glass, fixed to the rod, thus poured on the oil of turpentine without the least danger.

It is caloric, as was already observed, that acts upon our organs, and excites what we term warmth. Heat and cold, with respect to our senses, are distinguished by those perceptions which are the effects either of an augmentation or diminution of caloric in the animal

body, whenever we approach a substance whose temperature is either higher or lower than the temperature of our own body. But the perception is always modified by the state of our organs at the time, and the temperature they have been last exposed to. Hence, not only one person shall feel cold, and another warm, in the same atmosphere, but if we plunge our hands for some time, the one into hot, and the other into cold water, and then suddenly transfer them both into water of the heat of the blood, the same water will distinctly impress on us the sensation both of heat and cold. It follows, that our senses then are not a just criterion of the state of bodies as to temperature, and hence we must have recourse to some other method of discovering the real temperature of bodies.

Different instruments have been invented for this purpose, all of which, however, have given way to the one presently used, namely, the thermometer, an instrument of essential use in all meterological and chemical operations, for as determinate degrees of heat have determinate effects, and as by this instrument we can measure the former we are thus enabled at all times to predict with certainty regarding the latter.

The principle upon which all thermometers depend, is, the expansion of bodies when heat is applied to them, of which the experiment with the rod of iron, formerly taken notice of, was one proof.

All bodies are expanded by an augmentation of caloric, and contracted by a diminution of it, water excepted, as was already noticed. It is found, however, that different substances are very far from dilating in the same degree. Different metals expand in different degrees, and other kinds of solid bodies vary still more in this respect. But this different susceptibility of expansion is still more remarkable in fluids than in solids, in consequence of the particles of the former possessing a less degree of cohesion than the particles of the latter possess.

In every case where bodies are in vacuo, i. e. where the pressure of the atmosphere is removed from them, a less degree of heat is necessary for their expansion, or, what is the same thing, in the same degree of temperature bodies will expand more when in vacuo than when exposed to the atmospheric pressure. To shew the truth of this, take some spirit of wine diluted with water, and along with it a little of some colouring matter, in order that the effect may be more conspicuous. Put this mixture into a small glass tube, close at the one end: remove from

it the pressure of the air, which may be done by filling the tube quite full with the fluid, so that all the air may be forced out of it, and then inverting it with the open end directly undermost and allowing a part of the fluid again to run out. The air by this means is not allowed to return into the tube, at least in any quantity, and there will in consequence be a vacuum formed at the upper end of it. Care, however, must be taken to have the open end of the tube closed before nearly all the fluid is allowed to run out, otherwise a large quantity of air will unavoidably be let in. Having got the end of the tube closed and a quantity of the fluid still in it, it will be necessary to seal it up to prevent the farther access of the atmosphere, which may be done by means of a blow pipe at the candle. This accomplished—upon holding the tube in your hand with the vacuum uppermost, the heat of your blood will act so forcibly on the fluid thus left in vacuo as to immediately expand it, and force it to rise considerably in the tube, which would not have happened, at least in nearly so great a degree, had not the pressure of the atmosphere been removed.

From the experiments which have been given, it appears that the expansion of all bodies is more or less according to the quantity of heat employed, that fluid bodies require less caloric to expand them to the same degree than solids do, and that when in vacuo less degrees of heat will affect bodies than when in the open air, which last circumstance enables us to ascertain more minute variations of temperature than we could otherwise do; and these two circumstances together furnish us with data for the construction of the thermometer, an instrument, as was already said, adapted for measuring the temperature of bodies.

The thermometer is a glass vessel, filled to a certain degree with a liquid, for the purpose of shewing the expansions of that liquid in different temperatures, or what is more generally the case, for the purpose of shewing the temperature of bodies applied to the instrument, by the corresponding expansion of the liquid contained in it. By the temperature of bodies is to be understood the different degrees of heat and cold, or rather the quantity of caloric with which bodies are penetrated.

Different fluids have been employed in the construction of thermometers, such as alkahol or spirit of wine, oil, and mercury,—each of which have certain peculiarities belonging to them, which I shall here take notice of.

In the first place, each of these fluids have different

boiling points, i. e. they require different quantities of heat to make them boil. Thus, for instance, oil requires four times as much heat to make it boil as water does, hence therefore, oil is not an eligible fluid for a thermometer intended for indicating minute degrees of temperature, as it would be but little, if any, affected by small quantities of caloric. There is another objection to this liquid for the use of the thermometer, namely, its viscidity, which, when indicating a lower degree of temperature after a higher, occasions the indication of a degree lower than it really ought to be, by reason of a quantity of the oil adhering to the sides of the tube which contains it. Both these circumstances taken together render oil a very improper fluid for the use of the thermometer, and accordingly it is not now used.

The next of the above-mentioned fluids I shall take notice of, is spirit of wine, which has exactly the opposite quality of oil, for as oil is only fitted for indicating high degrees of temperature, spirit of wine is only fit for indicating very low and minute degrees of it, being so easily acted upon by heat, that the least alteration in the temperature of a body will considerably affect it. Besides this objection to the use of spirit of wine in the thermometer, there is still another of much greater moment, which arises from the circumstance of our never being able to get it of one strength—a thing of the utmost importance, because the least difference in this particular will alter the degrees of temperature which will be indicated by the instrument. Thus, for instance, one thermometer filled with spirit of wine of one strength, and another with spirit of wine of a different strength, will indicate degrees of temperature in the same body very far different from one another. For these reasons spirit of wine is a very unfit fluid for being used in the thermometer. Indeed, at all events, it can only be used when low or minute degrees of temperature are wanted to be ascertained, and its principal use is for the last purpose. It has however, notwithstanding the above objections to its use, been used in a species of thermometer called the Florentine, which was introduced by Reaumur, a Frenchman, in the year 1650, who, in order to have the spirit of wine of as uniform a strength as possible, diluted it to a certain degree with water. Thus, in some measure, both objections were removed, as the instrument was then more to be depended on, and it was also made capable of indicating higher degrees of temperature. After all, how-

ever, it is a fluid far inferior for the use of the thermometer to that which I am next to speak of.

The best liquid that has ever been applied to the thermometer is mercury or quicksilver, which, when properly purified, indicates both means and extremes of cold and heat, in a manner much more to be depended on than the indications of thermometers filled with any of the other fluids above-mentioned. The application of quicksilver to the thermometer is of latter date than any of the other fluids. The discovery of it has been claimed both by Dr. Halley and Fahrenheit; but the latter generally carries off the merit of the invention, and hence it has been called Fahrenheit's thermometer.

Fahrenheit was a native of Amsterdam, and published his invention in the year 1724, and his thermometer has now nearly supplanted all others. Although this description of thermometer had never been brought into use before the time of Fahrenheit, it is perfectly well known that it was recommended by Dr. Bacon, even at a period nearly five hundred years before Fahrenheit flourished, so though he justly deserves the merit of bringing it into use he cannot be called the inventor of it.

The most proper, most useful, and, indeed, the most common shape of the thermometer is that of a long glass tube with a narrow bore, having a globular cavity at one extremity. This globular cavity, and part of the tube, is filled with mercury, and the rest of the tube is quite exhausted of air, so that the mercury may be in vacuo. The upper end of the tube is sealed hermetically, i. e. perfectly closed by melting part of the glass at the extremity of the tube at the flame of a candle or lamp, urged by means of a blow pipe.

When the bulb of the instrument is heated the fluid is expanded, and not being able to manifest this expansion any other way than by extending itself upwards in the tube, all the increment of bulk is, therefore, manifested by the rise of the mercury in the tube. On the other hand, when the bulb is cooled the fluid contracts, and the column of it in the tube is lessened. It is evident, *ceteris paribus*, that the larger the bulb is in proportion to the diameter of the tube, or the narrower the latter is in proportion to the former, the greater will be the motion of the surface of the fluid in the tube, and hence, according as this proportion is greater or less, the greater or less will any degree of heat or cold make the surface of the fluid in the tube to rise or fall. It must, however, be observed, that

when the bulb is very large the thermometer will not easily arrive at the precise temperature of any place wherein it may be situated. Some persons, in order to give the bulb a greater surface, and at the same time to render it more capable of readily attaining any temperature, have made it *cylindrical* instead of globular, (*which* shape was adopted by Fahrenheit), or flat, or bell-like, &c., but those shapes are improper because they are liable to be altered by the varying gravity of the surrounding atmosphere, consequently such thermometers cannot give accurate indications of the degrees of heat or cold.

If a thermometer is heated suddenly, for instance, if the bulk should be immersed in hot water the surface of the fluid will be seen for a short time at first to descend, after which it will rise in the tube. The reason of this is, the heat of the water, in the first instance, enlarges the tube, which occasions a depression of the mercury in the inside of it, but as soon as the heat of the water begins to take effect on the mercury it immediately begins to expand, which it can only do by rising in the tube. On the contrary, if the bulb of a thermometer is cooled suddenly, the surface of the fluid will first rise a little and then descend. In this case, the cold, in the first place, contracts the tube which occasions the rise of the fluid in it, but as soon as the cold reaches the fluid itself it contracts it, and hence a depression of its column is the consequence.

Ice is melted by a certain invariable degree of temperature, and water also freezes always at about the same temperature, therefore, if the bulb of a mercurial thermometer is placed in melting snow or ice, and a mark made on the outside of the tube even with the surface of the fluid, that mark is called the freezing point, though, in fact, it is the melting point of ice; yet as both are the same this makes no difference, and it is better to fix on this point for the freezing point, as it is more constant and uniform than the point at which water would always appear to freeze. If the tube is placed in boiling water, and a mark made on the glass even with the surface of the fluid within, that mark is called the boiling point, for in an open vessel and under the same atmospherical pressure water invariably boils at that point. These points being once ascertained, and the length of the tube between them divided into any number of equal parts, these parts will be the degrees of heat or cold indicated by the corresponding expansion of the fluid within the thermometer. The same degrees or equal divisions may

be continued above and below either of these points, viz. either above the boiling or below the freezing point, and these degrees will of course indicate temperatures higher than the boiling point or lower than the freezing point.

Those two unalterable points of temperature, viz. the freezing and boiling points, the former at which water becomes ice, and the latter at which water boils or begins to become vapour, have been universally adopted by the various constructors of thermometers for the gradations of those instruments, but the space between them, however, has been differently divided by different persons. The thermometers which I shall here take notice of are, the one we have been just now considering, viz. Fahrenheit's, Reaumur's, Celsesis, the Florentine, and De L'Isles. Fahrenheit divides the space between his freezing and boiling points into 180° or equal divisions, but he places his Zero or 0° thirty-two degrees below the freezing point; so, therefore, his freezing point is at 32°, and his boiling point at 212°. Other persons have adopted different divisions, which they, no doubt, have been induced to do on account of some supposed advantages such divisions possessed.

Most of these gradations are now out of use, but they are to be met with in various though not very recent publications, and as the reader may happen to meet with them in some books which he may occasionally read, I shall therefore give a brief account of them, and at the same time a few rules for the reduction of their degrees to the common standard, which is Fahrenheit's, at least in the British dominions. Different nations however, yet use different thermometers, as will be immediately noticed.

Fahrenheit's thermometer, (which is always to be understood the one I hereafter allude to when no particular distinction is made,) has its boiling point fixed at 212°, and its freezing point at 32°, making a range betwixt them of 180°. It is chiefly used in Britain, and in all places where Britons settle. It is also used by the Dutch and Germans.

Reaumur has fixed the freezing point in his thermometer at 0°, and the boiling point at 80°. This instrument is generally used in France, and some other parts of the continent.

Celsesis is graduated with a range of 100°. He makes his freezing point 0°, and his boiling point 100°. It has been chiefly used in Sweden, hence it is also called the Swedish thermometer. It has lately been adopted by the French chemists, and the name of the centigrade thermometer

given it on account of its having a range of 100 degrees between its freezing and boiling points.

De L'Isle's thermometer is graduated in an inverted order, He makes the freezing point 150°, and the boiling point 0°, and consequently has a range of 150 degrees between them; but this instrument is now become obsolete.

The Florentine thermometers, which were made and used by the members of the academy Delcementi, being some of the first instruments of the sort, were vaguely graduated, some having a great many more degrees than others. But two of their most common gradations seem to have been a range in the one of 154°, the boiling point being 174°, and the freezing point 20°; and in the other a range of 68 1-6th, the boiling point being at 81½, and the freezing point at 13¼ degrees.

Many other thermometers might be mentioned, but the above are those which are most commonly referred to in scientific works; of the others I shall not therefore take any notice, but proceed to point out to the reader by what method he may reduce any degree of the above-mentioned thermometers to the corresponding degree of Fahrenheit's. For this purpose the following tabulæ will be sufficient.

Thus, 1st, to convert the degrees of Reamur's into those of Fahrenheit's. $\frac{R \times 9}{4} + 32 = F$. 2d. To convert those of Fahrenheit into Reamur's. $\frac{F - 32 \times 4}{9} = R$. 3d. To convert Celsis's into Fahrenheit's. $\frac{C \times 9}{5} + 32 = F$. 4th. To convert Fahrenheit's into Celsis's. $\frac{F - 32 \times 5}{9} = C$. 5th. To convert Celsis's degrees into Reamur's. $\frac{C \times 4}{5} = R$. 6th. To convert Reamur's into Celsis's. $\frac{R \times 5}{4} = C$.

Thus we may convert the one into the other with the greatest facility, but to such readers as are unacquainted with the algebraic expressions of arithmetical formulæ, it will be necessary to express one or two of them in words, in order that their use may be understood. First, then, To convert the degrees of Reamur's into those of Fahrenheit's: Multiply the degree of Reamur by 9, divide the product by 4, and to the quotient add 32; the sum expresses the corresponding degree on the scale of Fahrenheit. Second, To convert the degrees of Fahrenheit into those of Rea-

mur: From the degrees of Fahrenheit substract 32, multiply the remainder by 4, and divide the product by 9, the quotient will be the degree according to the scale of Reamur. And so on for the rest.

It were, however, very much to be wished, that the constructors of all thermometers had graduated their scales to the same number of degrees, and indeed, until this be done we shall be very often at a loss how to determine the temperature of the atmosphere, in different countries, upon the occurrence of any remarkable event; for we must remain perfectly ignorant of it, if at the same time when the person makes the observation, he does not mention by what instrument his observation was taken.

Thermometers have been made of a great variety of shapes and sizes, suitable to the different purposes for which they were intended, yet for shewing the temperature of the atmosphere the shape already taken notice of is the best, and when it is adapted for this purpose the range of it need not be very great, that is, its scale need not be very much extended. Hence we never, or at any rate we very seldom, see above 120 degrees marked upon it.

At the time Fahrenheit constructed his thermometer he was of opinion, that there never could be any greater cold than would make the mercury fall 32° below his freezing point, and accordingly he did not carry the gradations of his scale any farther. We have, however, since discovered means for producing much greater degrees of cold, and even besides these greater degrees of cold produced by artificial means, in Scotland there have been experienced degrees of cold below his 0—32°; and on this account it has been found necessary to apply an additional graduated scale with twenty other gradations below his 32°, which is now found to be quite sufficient for the greatest degree of cold. With regard to the gradations above the freezing point all the length that there is any occasion for carrying them, when it is intended for measuring the temperature of the atmosphere only, is at most 120°, but should it be wanted for other purposes, we may carry the gradations as high as 600, though we can go no farther, as the heat is then so great that it makes the mercury boil and burst the tube.

As to the scales of thermometers it may be proper to remark, that the degrees may be delineated on metal, wood, paper, or ivory, &c. but such substances should be preferred for this purpose, as are least apt to be altered by the state of the weather, especially when the instru-

ments are not defended by a glass cover, or by a box with a glass face.

With regard to thermometers I have only further to remark, that when a person wishes to purchase one he may easily make a trial whether it be justly graduated or not, in the following manner. I mention this, because a person may be often very much imposed upon by a set of swindling fellows, generally Italians, who are in the practice of making and selling instruments of this description through the country of very inferior quality. If it is in winter, and you can get snow or ice, take a bason half full of water and put snow or ice into it until it be nearly full, and then plunge the thermometer into it up to the freezing point, and if the mercury in the inside rise so that its surface becomes exactly on a level with this point on the scale, you may depend on the correctness of that instrument. If snow or ice cannot be had, there are other rude methods of trying it, though less correct, such as taking it into a room where fire is commonly kept, where it ought to stand at about 52°; or by a person holding it in his hand, which would occasion the mercury (providing he was in his ordinary state of health) to rise to about 90°, viz. the heat of the blood.

Having now finished all I have to say relative to thermometers, I next proceed to consider the other effects produced on bodies by heat, besides their expansion or dilatation.

By means of the effects produced on bodies by heat we are enabled to distinguish them into those that are fusible, and those that are not fusible. Fusible bodies are all such hard and solid bodies as by means of fire are made to pass from the solid to the fluid state, and when allowed to cool again resume their pristine state without changing any of their former properties. In this case they are simply called fusible bodies. Such bodies, however, as when fused do not again return to the same state they were in before, but change their properties, and become entirely different substances, are called vitrifiable bodies: hence arises another distinction between those bodies which are vitrifiable and those which are not vitrifiable.

Secondly, we distinguish bodies by means of heat into fixed and volatile. Fixed bodies are all such as upon the application of heat to them, do not in the least alter their nature or form, but remain unchanged, while volatile

substances again, when heat is applied to them, are dissipated into smoke or vapour.

Some bodies are extremely volatile, and all solids are more so than fluids, yet some of the hardest of solid bodies are very volatile and may be entirely dissipated into smoke by means of heat. Such a substance is the diamond, one of the hardest we are acquainted with.

Third and lastly, bodies may be farther distinguished into combustible and incombustible. By attending to the phenomena of inflammation or burning, philosophers were led to conclude, that besides the quantity of caloric that is uniformly diffused throughout all bodies, there are many bodies, both solid and fluid, particularly those called inflammable, which contain fire in them as a fixed constituent principle, and to which they owe their inflammability and other distinguishing properties. This fixed fire, in order to distinguish it from fire at liberty or caloric, has been by some called φλογιστον, i. e. the inflammable principle, and has given rise to a theory called the phlogistic theory.

By the phlogistic theorists it was supposed, that fixed fire entered into the composition of all metallic bodies, and that it could be taken from them, and be afterwards returned by exposing them to its action. When the metals were deprived of this fixed fire they called them calxes, and when it was returned to them again they called them metals.

Indeed, various experiments appeared to give stability to this theory, and it was long and steadily maintained; however our better knowledge of the nature of oxygen enabled us, at length, to explode it, and to find that its principles were not true, and accordingly it has now but very few supporters.

In the phlogistic theory, or what was called the theory of stahl, the principal stumbling block was, that its supporters did not take into consideration that the calxes of metals are heavier than the metals themselves are, which could not be the case if any substance was taken from them when reduced to that state, as they said φλογιστον was. This sufficiently shewed the inaccuracy of their theory; and, accordingly Lavosier, of whom mention was already made, completely overturned it on this ground. He has proved that all metals are simple substances, and that, like all inflammables, they have a strong tendency to unite with a component part of the atmosphere, and when exposed to a certain degree of heat they lose their splendour and

other metallic properties, and are converted into an earth called now an oxide (formerly a calx), which seems to possess none of the properties of the original metal. This change takes place in consequence of their strong tendency to absorb oxygen, and hence the reason of their always being heavier than the metals themselves are.

[To be continued.]

The importance of the following Outline of a Plan for the purpose of promoting an Open Trade beyond the Capes of the Southern Hemisphere, whatever may be the Opinions of Individuals on the Subject, cannot but prove highly acceptable to all Classes of our Readers; and, with this View, we have taken the earliest Opportunity of introducing it to their Notice, as well entitled to their serious Consideration in the present State of commercial Concerns.—THE EDITORS.

OPEN TRADE BEYOND THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE AND CAPE HORN.

A Commercial Report, containing the general Reasons why the undersigned resolved to present to the United Kingdom, an Outline (in a Publication, intitled, "*The Oriental Exposition*," and sold by Sherwood and Co. Paternoster-row), for a free and open Trade beyond the Cape of Good Hope and Cape Horn; and has *presumed to summon together a select Meeting* at the New London Tavern, on the 21st of January, 1812, when this Report was read.

AT the termination of the Session of Parliament, 1811, the contemplative politician, and friend to his country, could not view without alarm the actual consequences of a long and pernicious scheme of domestic policy, and continental warfare.

At home we had, in lieu of the precious metals, an incalculable extent of paper currency; and our revenue had commenced an abridgment, because that, abroad, the profound prohibitory measures of our subtile foe had completely cramped our industry, and endangered even our loyalty and our internal tranquillity. This, then,

was the actual position of our once pre-eminent kingdom.

In order to ascertain what could be the fundamental CAUSES of this alarming situation, your Reporter sought, but in vain, to find them amongst the aerial or vindictive conceits of public men, actuated either by interest, or more plausibly indeed, by what it is the fashion to term "existing circumstances."

These CAUSES, then, were to be found in the *comparative modes* by which wars had been heretofore conducted; and in what was the actual civil policy of a WISE government.

In this research, it was impossible for your Reporter to err, when he pronounced that "with such WISE governments, wars could not be conscientiously and safely prolonged beyond the moment when the integrity of the commonwealth was assured," and "the moment that the OCCUPATION of the whole population was no longer guaranteed."

In the examination of former wars, your Reporter ascertains that, generally, BOTH those primary objects were most scrupulously attended to; and, in a comparison, he was mortified to find that, even before the Revolution, the latter object was peculiarly predominant; for the Stuarts appear to have had in view the aggrandizement of our commercial natives, at the expence of the Dutch and French nations.

For the purpose of ascertaining by what different hostile act this great object, the OCCUPATION of the whole mass of the people was endangered, your Reporter had but to remark, that, in all wars up to the present one, the United Kingdom had never lost its continental intercourse: there had ever existed, either by arrangement tacit or understood, an immense contraband, even with France itself; and this social hostile scheme of government would have again obtained in this war, if the United Kingdom had not resorted to the new feature of blockading the ports of the antagonist.

What was the consequence! The United Kingdom, by the countervailing measures of the foe, and by the fruitless specie loans to its continental allies, lost its European continental markets, and was imperiously compelled to recur to a paper substitution for the once specie currency.

This paper substitution, then, gave to our internal energies an astonishing impulse: not an agriculturist but was benefited, not a manufacturer or a merchant without

embracing it for the purpose of expanding his machinery and his connections. All this, however, required an EXTERNAL expansion of the demands for our national industry; but, alas! our continental hostility only abridged our already contracted channels, and neutrals, especially those of the United States, were the vehicles of our industry, and, at the same moment or soon afterwards, in their ingress into hostile France, became the object of our envy and our resentment.

Soon, then, did the United Kingdom find itself further deprived of the precious metals; and it was not difficult to discern to what an extent manufacturing and commercial distress would inevitably arise.

Your Reporter must here, however, declare, as a duty he owes to candor, that he does not presume so far to dive into the mysteries of state policy as to arraign those public measures which, by the continental blockade, has thus unfortunately produced so critical a dilemma. On the contrary, your Reporter is of opinion, that if the United States and other neutrals had had free ingress and regress into all the European ports, our own country would have participated in the drama of European revolution.

It is another opinion which he entertains of the wisdom of granting to the United States, in 1794, a tranquil participation with the Honourable East India Company's extensive and lucrative commerce, but which could not be politically conceded to the LOYAL BRITISH AMERICAN COLONIES, to the SUFFERING *West Indian Islands, and to* 19-20*ths of the subjects of Great Britain and Ireland.* This state measure, your Reporter pronounces as having proved the most impolitic and unfortunate act of His Majesty's long and eventful reign.

This United States' participation of seventeen years, by the lower rate at which they can navigate, by their immense sales to OUR OWN North American and West Indian Colonies, where, although re-shipped, they found no difficulty in introducing immense quantities of teas, nankeens, and other of their Oriental importations, at GREATLY LOWER prices than the loyal EUROPEAN BRITISH—in addition to their uninterrupted commerce with the European ports (until very lately), gave these United States such an incredible increase of wealth and commercial power, such an insight into the arcana of manufacturing and nautical science, as induced them even to proscribe our national industry; and, aware of our interminate European warfare, aware, no doubt, of our commer-

cial difficulties, cunningly calculating upon our East India Company, and *government connection* and INDIVISIBILITY, presumptuously supposed that we could be even INSULTED with impunity.

There were, however, inducements for preserving the terms of amity with the United States, which became almost insuperable. To the United Kingdom an immense balance was due, and if the former did not retain their French alliance, a debt as great would be lost to republican America.

This then was, and is yet, the actual situation of our commercial relations. By the events of the continental war, we had successively abandoned our commercial relations in almost every one of the European countries; and, in but too many cases, had left our balances behind us. It is the same with the United States. In Buenos Ayres, and in the Brazils, our impetuous commercial energy, like some stream long obstructed, became a fatal inundation, and one-half of the adventurers were ruined.

A further emission then of circulating medium became necessary, to avert a general distress, and this has produced a thousand desultory disquisitions upon the nature of *commercial balances* and of a *circulating medium*. The most able publicists have merely agreed that "there is by an increased paper circulation, A GENERAL NOMINAL INCREASE IN PRICES OF PERHAPS EVERY ARTICLE," but, not one of them appears to have discovered, that this, THUS GENERAL, is not of itself an evil; for, IF IT WERE, *it would in the natural course of events, have produced, long ere this, some national commotion*, nor has any one of them, yet rationally accounted for the wonderful phenomenon, that although an increased circulating medium had thus advanced every *internal* article, yet we were actually SHIPPING our industry at LOWER PRICES THAN BEFORE THE BANK OF ENGLAND RESTRICTIONS OF 1797.

To account for this most important position, your Reporter conceives it sufficient to state that, such increased circulating medium gave greater facilities to the internal intercourse of man with his neighbour, ALIKE POSSESSED WITH A CONFIDENCE IN THE INVINCIBILITY OF THEIR GOVERNMENT. There are different denominations of commercial property: there is CASH, or the representative of cash; and there is CREDIT, or CONFIDENCE in our neighbour. Your Reporter will demonstrate this, for he recollects the moment: it is not thirty-

five years since what is called *accommodation paper*, viz. reputable commercial houses exchanged their names, and thus anticipated payments by a discount. This, in process of time, became general; and, what able commercial man can presume to account for that increase of our internal and external commercial relations, SUBSEQUENT to such thirty-five years ago, BUT TO THE FACILITIES to which this discount through the Bank of England gave to our national energies?

To what besides, your Reporter submits, can be imputed our superiority in the arts, over our enterprizing and ingenious rivals? Not surely to the different forms of government, for, if this were argued, we must now abandon our boasted freedom, thus crippled in its foreign relations, and in Buonaparte's profundity, and commercial knowledge of the true interests of a country, yield the palm to an absolute dynasty.

The precious metals, then, your Reporter humbly conceives, are not intrinsically essential to the welfare of a state: if they were, the pitiable dominions of the former Tuscany or Naples, or of Bavaria, or of Prussia, would have been governments of prime consideration, for in those, and many others, it is well known that their whole impoverished circulation was in specie.

How happens it, nevertheless, that this reasoning will not apply to the period SUBSEQUENT to the Bank restrictions, and since this immense increase of the circulating medium? Because that, different from the period from 1780 to 1797, we have lost nearly the whole of our EXTERNAL channels! Our country, by the paper emission, has been internally improved and beautified, but, by the blockade of Europe, repelled by the French decrees, and by the capricious humour of the United States and other neutrals, instead of a vent for our industry, which should have preserved EQUAL PROPORTION to the INCREASED ENERGIES of OUR CIRCULATING MEDIUM, we discovered nothing but a melancholy reverse! And thus have we the appalling sight of bankruptcy and ruin, UNLESS A FAR DIFFERENT SYSTEM OF PUBLIC MEASURES BE IMMEDIATELY ADOPTED.

Your Reporter will proceed to suggest what they ought to be: but his impartiality compels him previously to bear testimony, that, in a close investigation, he sees nothing in the conduct of the Bank Directors, BUT SOUND JUDGMENT: they have had a most arduous task: their arrangement of accommodations has been generally judicious. And your Reporter has, on another occasion, and to the

highest powers, with reasons not to be promulgated, illustrated the wisdom and necessity of preserving every respectable PROVINCIAL EMISSION of the circulating medium.

Your Reporter, under all the circumstances, then, is obliged to declare that the actual COMMERCIAL EMBARRASSMENTS, and perhaps, NATIONAL TRANQUILLITY; and, THE GENERAL OCCUPATION OF THE MASS OF THE COUNTRY, imperiously demand that, A SPEEDY EXTERNAL VENT should be found for the surplus industry of the kingdom; and, that OUR STAGNANT COLONIAL PRODUCTIONS SHOULD RECEIVE THE TEMPORARY PROTECTION OF THE GOVERNMENT. And, for the purpose of restoring our former, or of obtaining an adequate channel for our increased national industry, it becomes the PRIME DUTY of our government, either IMMEDIATELY to resort to a GENERAL PEACE, or TO CHANGE THE WHOLE FEATURE OF THE WAR BY HERMETICALLY SEALING EVERY EUROPEAN AND ASIATIC PORT.

Your Reporter is aware that many a philanthropist will exclaim, that "this latter resort is contrary to the humane laws of nations, thus to interrupt the peaceable commerce of neutrals." Your Reporter replies, that the *laws of nations* has supposed the INTEGRITY, not the OVERTHROW of nations, and, if a scheme of war has, by the loss of external commerce, stagnated our internal energies, which at the same time highly aggrandized the neutrals, let such neutrals forbear, and calmly repose until this GREAT EUROPEAN CONTEST is at an end.

If, however, such neutrals unfortunately breathe hostility, let them obtrude themselves on the awful conflict; let them arrange their armour, they will speedily repent it in sackcloth and in ashes: the British trident can ascertain the fate of nations! So much for the future hostile plan. But your Reporter is compelled to declare that, AS SPEEDILY must a wise government resort to some new channel for our native industry: and none presents itself but the immense regions beyond the Cape of Good Hope and Cape Horn. The Asiatic ports must be proscribed but to the British flag.

Their interminate continents and numerous islands, would give an impulse to our kingdom and its American dependencies EXCEEDING ALL PRECEDENT: and it would be corroborated by the cheers of a triumphant navy, unknown to past ages, and conducted by heroes indignant at that inert scheme of warfare, by which their

courage has been but a negative quality; and their forbearance, under a thousand insults, has been sanctioned under the accommodating shield of "state necessity."

No. Your Reporter, after mature deliberation, is thus urged to offer his propositions for a participation in the unfathomed and lucrative commerce beyond such capes, by a conscientious conviction that nothing can avert further calamity but an union of opinion upon the necessity of speedily regaining an OCCUPATION FOR THE GENERAL MASS, and thus give activity to our increased circulating capital.

Then, BUT NOT OTHERWISE, shall we soon see that the precious metals will be restored to us, and may again, if we choose, constitute a part of our commercial capital, and SOON will it be ascertained, whether our hostile antagonist WILL NOT BE COMPLETELY BAFFLED IN ALL HIS ARTIFICES.

On the subject of the restoration however, of the precious metals, it is incumbent on your Reporter to state, that he has deliberately reflected on the probable evils that may attend the paper medium in this our insulated situation, *previous* to such an occurrence, and he cannot discover ANY GROUND FOR APPREHENSION WHATEVER, IF THE GENERAL COMMUNITY IS OCCUPIED IN ITS ORDINARY HABITS; unless, indeed, in the event of an invasion, by the certain confusion that such paper would locally produce: an effectual remedy for which, however, your Reporter has long ago had the honour to submit to His Majesty's executive servants.

Your Reporter, having published his sentiments generally, will not obtrude any further self-evident proofs of FLAGRANT INJUSTICE; and of the GENERAL INJURY which arises from exclusive commercial privileges, such as those enjoyed by the Honourable East India Company: nor will he dilate upon the pernicious effects produced by a GIGANTIC MONOPOLY, bloated by an INCREDIBLE issue of paper on a common seal.

Your Reporter conceives, and his opinion is corroborated by many private suggestions, from men in exalted stations, THAT IT IS ONLY NECESSARY FOR THE UNITED KINGDOM TO PETITION GENERALLY, TO OBTAIN A PARTICIPATION in a valuable commerce which was gained for the British people by the best blood, and by the actual treasure of the whole kingdom; and that the Minister who boldly embraces the prayer of the petitioners, will have established himself BEYOND ANY OF

HIS PREDECESSORS; he will INSTANTLY revive the drooping commercial energies of the whole empire; he will be enabled, by merely a small impost on the exports, during THIS CURRENT YEAR, TO PRESENT A SUBSTITUTION FOR THE ODIOUS INCOME TAX; and, in the future years, display to astonished Europe and to our antagonists, what INCALCULABLE RESOURCES we possess, when a great nation is at length aroused from its lethargy.

It would be too presumptuous for your Reporter to describe the mode of participation with the East India Company, even before the termination of their charter in August, 1813. But, whatever it may be, the NATIONAL HONOUR must be faithfully preserved: not an inferior clerk but will receive his just remuneration; the British Government is founded on the principles of equity.

Your Reporter humbly trusts, that at the General Meeting to be held on the 4th February, 12 o'clock, a committee of twelve able and honourable men will be arranged, to take measures for A SPEEDY GENERAL MEETING to petition the Houses of Parliament: and that a sub and SECRET one of three gentlemen do regulate the correspondence with the large towns of the Union. When this is arranged, your Reporter will transmit to it a private memoir, containing matters which it might not be discreet to promulgate in public.

Your Reporter apologizes for his presumption, with an assurance, that he has no actual interest in this his humble service; he has presented an adamantine base for an OPEN TRADE beyond the Cape of Good Hope and Cape Horn. The commercial world must MEET—PETITION, and ESTABLISH the glorious superstructure. Your Reporter will not again obtrude himself. The time is not yet arrived for men of independent minds; he has, however, discharged a solemn duty to God and to his country.

S. F. WADDINGTON.

N. B. After this Report was read, it was resolved that a general meeting of manufacturers, merchants, ship owners, bankers, and other principals concerned in London trading houses, be held at the New London Tavern, Cheapside, on Tuesday the 4th February next, at twelve o'clock precisely, "for the purpose of agreeing to petition both Houses of Parliament, soliciting a speedy participation in the trade beyond the Cape of Good Hope and Cape Horn."

London, Jan. 21, 1812.

COMMERCIAL LAW INTELLIGENCE.

*** *From the Suggestion of several of our commercial Correspondents, we have determined regularly to make an interesting Selection of such important Decisions in the Courts of Law, as relate more immediately to mercantile and commercial Occurrences: in which Department we shall have the Assistance of some very eminent professional Gentlemen. Adding this to the long and successful Experience of the Editors in digesting the various Acts of Parliament relative to those Subjects, as they have been successively enacted for many Years, on which we shall bestow peculiar attention, we shall present our Readers with a highly useful Summary of Legal Information.*

KING'S BENCH.—SPECIAL JURIES.

Mellish v. *Hobson.*—This was an action upon a Policy of Insurance on goods per the ship Sophia, upon a voyage from Malta to the island of Lissa and back, and during her stay at that island, with liberty to barter and exchange cargo, and to seek, join, and exchange convoy, &c.—lost by capture.

Verdict for plaintiff, damages £300. and costs.

Boyd v. *Isbister.*—This was an action for goods sold and delivered, and brought against the defendant as Captain of a ship called the Perseverance, belonging to Messrs. Jacobs and Co. The vessel in question being under orders for a voyage to the South Seas, the defendant, on behalf of his owners, gave directions to the plaintiff to furnish him with sails and other articles for the ship's use. These articles were accordingly furnished, and the ship sailed, but, shortly after her return, the plaintiff demanded payment for the articles from the present defendant, whom he selected his debtor, in preference to Messrs. Jacobs and Co. the owners, who, it appeared, two days after the plaintiff's return from his voyage, became bankrupts.———Verdict for defendant.

Bleachford v. *Bousfield and others.*—This was an action for goods sold and delivered, and brought by the plaintiff, who was an eminent military laceman and sword-cutler, in the city, against the defendants, Michael Bousfield, Daniel Bousfield, Benjamin Savage, Duncan Hunter, and John Eastman.—To the declaration the first four defendants had pleaded that they were not liable, and the other defendant (Eastman) pleaded his certificate, under a commission of bankruptcy.

It appeared that in the autumn of 1809, these defendants being engaged in a mercantile adventure, to a considerable amount, to South America (Buenos Ayres), by a vessel called the George Canning, applied to the plaintiff, through the medium of Eastman, to supply them with a quantity of articles in his line of trade for this adventure, which he accordingly furnished to the amount of upwards of £900. The ship being fitted out, and having sailed upon this adventure, bills were drawn by the defendants upon

Messrs. Hunter and Rainy, merchants, in payment of the articles so sent out, Hunter being one of the persons engaged in this concern.

Verdict for plaintiff, £903. 18s. 6d. and costs.

Miller v. *Whitmore.*—This was an action on a policy of insurance upon a packet of diamonds, to be forwarded through the medium of the post-office to a gentleman of the name of Mortiare, resident at Madeira, but which never reached the place of their destination. The policy was effected in the year 1806, upon goods, "at and from the Post-office to Falmouth—from thence by the Packet to Lisbon—and at and from Lisbon, by any ship or vessel, to Madeira." —It appeared that the clerk of the plaintiff carried the diamonds to the office of the underwriters, at the time of effecting the insurance, to receive their instructions as to the mode of conveyance—when he was directed to carry them to the Post-office, to be from thence forwarded, in the usual course, to Lisbon.

Verdict for defendant.

Blackburne v. *Waters.*—This was an action upon a policy of insurance upon goods, per the ship Elizabeth and Mary, on a voyage from the port of London to Hayti (St. Domingo), with licence. The vessel in question was detained by his Majesty's ship the Dædalus, on her passage from Cape François to St. Mark's, in the island of St. Domingo, having goods on board not specified in the license.

Verdict for the plaintiff £300. subject to the future opinion of the court.

Schrohder v. *Vaux.*—This was an action on a policy of insurance on a cargo of wheat by the Hamburgh ship Success, from Archangel to the port of London, underwritten for £10,000. The ship and cargo were lost in a storm off Archangel on the voyage home.

It appeared in evidence, that the owners of the ship were Hamburghers, and alien enemies, Holland being, at the time of the insurance, in the possession of the French, and the licence appeared to be originally granted to English merchants, and by them endorsed to the plaintiffs.

Mr. Serjeant Best objected to the licence as being contrary to the Navigation Acts, by which it was provided that wheat could only be imported into this country in British or Russian ships. The king could not dispense with the Navigation Acts.

Lord Ellenborough said, he was rather inclined towards the defendant in this point; the king could not dispense with an act of parliament: the rights with respect to war or peace he may dispense with; but the question was, whether this license will go to the extent of interfering with the Navigation Act.

A verdict was then taken for the plaintiff, subject to the question for the future consideration of the court.

Goldswid v. *La Motte.*—This action was upon a policy of insurance on goods on board the Swedish ship Ajusta, upon a voyage from London to any of the ports of the Baltic, underwritten for £200. on account of the plaintiff and Messrs. Lubec, Brothers and Co. of Brunswick. The vessel in question had arrived off Stralsund in the month of January, 1810, having experienced bad weather, and was repairing her damages, when several Prussian soldiers came on board; the hatches and hold were seized, and ultimately the cargo was taken away by a military force under a French

officer, carried into the country, and all hopes of recovering the cargo relinquished. It also appeared, that there was no regular notice on the part of the assured of a total abandonment and much evidence was gone into to show that at that time Brunswick was under the dominion and controul of the king of Westphalia.

Verdict for plaintiff £200.

Raper v. *Brickbeck.*—This was an action upon a bill of exchange for £534. 18s. brought by the holder against one of the indorsers. The bill in question was made payable at Messrs. Ladbroke and Co.'s, bankers, Bank-buildings, and being presented for payment when it became due, the house of Ladbroke and Co. not having value in their hands, declined paying it; it happened however that there was a memorandum on the bill in these words, "in case of doubt, apply at Boldero's." Payment was accordingly demanded at Boldero's bank, and Mr. Henry Boldero, one of the junior partners, paid the bill for the honour of the drawer, and through inadvertence put a stroke of his pen across the acceptance, as if it had been a checque upon their own house; but immediately discovering his error, he wrote on the bill the words "cancelled by mistake." When payment came to be demanded of one of the other indorsers, he objected to pay it on account of the obliteration, and upon the same grounds, and also the want of protest, the defendants refused to take it up, and the present action was brought.

The Attorney-General justified the conduct of the defendant, in resisting the payment of the bill, as otherwise he could not have his action over against the other parties to the bill.

Lord Ellenborough considered it quite a clear case: where a mistake had taken place which was instantly rectified, it would be too much to say that the party had not a right to recover. Suppose a person had by accident spilled a bottle of ink, and obliterated a signature, he could not be liable to any thing more than attending in court to prove the fact.

Verdict for plaintiff, damages £534. 18s. with interest and costs.

Haughman v. *Irish.*—This was an action upon a bill of exchange brought by the endorsee against the drawer. It appeared, in this case, that the defendant, the drawer of the bill in question, was captain of the Admiral Berkeley merchant ship, and while at Monte Video had drawn this bill upon his owners in London, Messrs. Giddies and Company, under the following circumstances. He had carried out a cargo to Monte Video, consigned by his owners to their agent there (Mr. Bell), between whom and Messrs. M'Kinley, merchants of Monte Video, there was some unsettled account when Bell died. The ship's papers, in the mean time, had got into the hands of the Governor of Monte Video; and the defendant was obliged to submit the dispute between Bell and M'Kinley to arbitration, who awarded a balance due to the latter, and was compelled to draw the bill in question for the amount, before his papers would be restored, without which he could not sail for England. When the bill was presented for acceptance to Messrs. Giddies they refused to accept, and not being duly honoured when it became due, the defendant was arrested on his return, the moment he arrived in London. It further appeared that the defendant had no notice of the dishonour of the bill, although it was proved he had a house in Princes'-street, Princes'-square, several months before that time.

Upon this Lord Ellenborough held, that the plaintiff had no right

to recover, not having used due diligence to give the defendant notice of the dishonour of the bill. He could not pretend ignorance of where to find him, for the very act of arrest showed he had the means of communication.

The plaintiff was accordidgly *nonsuited.*

Bruen v. *Atkinson.*—This was an action upon a policy of insurance against the underwriters, upon ship and cargo, the ship Jolly Tar on a voyage to Cadiz and Gibraltar, which ship was lost by capture of the enemy or perils of the sea. It appeared on the part of the plaintiff that the vessel in question sailed from England on her destined voyage early in January, 1810, and arrived safe off Cadiz on the 29th of the same month. Here the captain found every thing in the greatest confusion and consternation, the French were within a few miles of the town, the male inhabitants all gone to man the fortifications, the Custom-house shut up, and even the men belonging to the lighters for landing goods taken away to man the gun-boats. In this state of things he could not either land or dispose of his cargo, until about the middle of February, when some British troops arrived, and it was then expected tranquillity would be restored and trade revive. In the mean time the Captain had written to his consignees at Gibraltar, to know what chance he might have of a market there, and while he waited for their answer, was enabled to land a few boxes (thirty-five) of soap by permission of the Governor (the Custom-house being still closed), that being an article of great scarcity in Cadiz at the time. And towards the end of the month he had negotiated with the house of M'Donnel and Co. for the sale of the greater part of the remaining cargo; but while this was pending, on the 3d of March, a dreadful gale of wind came on, which drove several ships from their moorings upon the opposite coast, and amongst the rest the Jolly Tar, where they were all destroyed or captured by the enemy.——Verdict for plaintiff.

COMMON PLEAS.

Living and others v. *Janson.*—This was an action to recover £200 on a policy of insurance. The plaintiffs, it appeared, shipped certain goods on board a vessel called the Vrow Catharina, bound for Konigsberg. Amongst other underwriters, a policy was effected with the defendant for the sum in question; and, by the terms of this policy, liberty was given for the vessel to touch at any port in Sweden. The premium was 30 per cent. to return 5 per cent. if she sailed with convoy. She left England under convoy. On her arrival on the Swedish coast, near Wingo Sound, she struck upon a rock, and was so much damaged by the shock, that it was found necessary to take her into Gottenburgh to be repaired, and there she arrived on the 16th of October, 1810. Upon examining her hull, it turned out that she was so much injured, as to render it necessary to take out her freight, which was warehoused in the custom-house. The ship was not again ready for sea until the 7th of May last, when the captain applied for the goods, but to his utter surprise, they were refused, and were kept from him by direction of the government. He, as well as the agent of the plaintiffs, afterwards petitioned the king of Sweden for their restoration, but without the desired effect; the plaintiffs therefore instituted the present action for the amount of the loss alleged to be sustained. It further appeared from the testimony of the witnesses, that a proclamation declaratory of the war with England, was posted up

on the walls of the exchange of Gottenburgh on the 17th of November, 1810. There was no condemnation or confiscation from the time they were warehoused, until the ship quitted Sweden; nor did it appear that they had yet been condemned.

Verdict for plaintiff.

COURT OF EXCHEQUER.—EDINBURGH.

A cause of great importance, both to the revenue and to the fair trader, was lately determined in the Court of Exchequer. A brewer was prosecuted at the instance of the Commissioners of Excise, for the recovery of a penalty of £200. sterling, incurred by using, contrary to the statute, two-thirds of raw grain along with malt, in the manufacture of beer. On the part of the prosecution it was stated, that in this case, there was a direct violation of the law, which prohibits in express terms, the use of every thing excepting malt and hops. But it was contended by the counsel for the defendant, that although raw grain was put into the mashing-tub along with a certain proportion of malt, the raw grain, after being dried and ground and mashed, that is dissolved in water, actually became malt, or was converted into a substance possessing all the properties of malt prepared in the usual way. This argument, so far as we understood it, rested on some explanation of the process which was given by a witness brought forward by the defendant. It was answered by the counsel for the prosecution, that as the law was clear and distinct, the defendant, by his own admission, had incurred the statutory penalty, as he did not deny having employed raw grain in making beer.

The Lord Advocate stated, that this was an attempt, on the part of the brewer, to defraud the revenue, and in that view it became a matter of most serious consideration; for if such practices were passed over, and if every one were allowed to brew in the same manner, the revenue of the country would be most materially injured; because no duties could ever be levied in such cases. There would be a complete evasion of the law. In the case before the court the defendant evaded the statute by using two-thirds of raw grain in making beer, which grain never was in a situation to pay the duty, for it is only while the grain is in its progress towards its conversion into malt that the duty can be imposed, and the amount estimated; but the raw grain used by the defendant never having been in the state of malt, no duty whatever could be levied upon it. Here, after stating the various legislative enactments relative to the duty on malt, his lordship observed, that the law allows the excise-officer to search the steeps, and watch the progress of the malting process, to see that the brewer pays the duty fairly; and besides, the brewer is requested to transmit to the excise within a month, a correct state of the whole malt which he manufactures. From all this it is perfectly obvious, that the legislature meant that the brewer should pay the full duty for the whole malt which he used; but in this case the defendant evaded the statute by using a very small proportion of malt which paid the duty, and a very large proportion of raw grain, on which no duty whatever could be levied.

His lordship then read part of the account of the process for preparing malt, as it is detailed under the article MALTING, page 463, Tradesman's Magazine for June last, where it is stated that grain cannot be malted without being brought to the state of germina-

to recover, not having used due diligence to give the defendant notice of the dishonour of the bill. He could not pretend ignorance of where to find him, for the very act of arrest showed he had the means of communication.

The plaintiff was accordidgly *nonsuited.*

Bruen v. *Atkinson.*—This was an action upon a policy of insurance against the underwriters, upon ship and cargo, the ship Jolly Tar on a voyage to Cadiz and Gibraltar, which ship was lost by capture of the enemy or perils of the sea. It appeared on the part of the plaintiff that the vessel in question sailed from England on her destined voyage early in January, 1810, and arrived safe off Cadiz on the 29th of the same month. Here the captain found every thing in the greatest confusion and consternation, the French were within a few miles of the town, the male inhabitants all gone to man the fortifications, the Custom-house shut up, and even the men belonging to the lighters for landing goods taken away to man the gun-boats. In this state of things he could not either land or dispose of his cargo, until about the middle of February, when some British troops arrived, and it was then expected tranquillity would be restored and trade revive. In the mean time the Captain had written to his consignees at Gibraltar, to know what chance he might have of a market there, and while he waited for their answer, was enabled to land a few boxes (thirty-five) of soap by permission of the Governor (the Custom-house being still closed), that being an article of great scarcity in Cadiz at the time. And towards the end of the month he had negotiated with the house of M'Donnel and Co. for the sale of the greater part of the remaining cargo; but while this was pending, on the 3d of March, a dreadful gale of wind came on, which drove several ships from their moorings upon the opposite coast, and amongst the rest the Jolly Tar, where they were all destroyed or captured by the enemy.——Verdict for plaintiff.

COMMON PLEAS.

Living and others v. *Janson.*—This was an action to recover £200 on a policy of insurance. The plaintiffs, it appeared, shipped certain goods on board a vessel called the Vrow Catharina, bound for Konigsberg. Amongst other underwriters, a policy was effected with the defendant for the sum in question; and, by the terms of this policy, liberty was given for the vessel to touch at any port in Sweden. The premium was 30 per cent. to return 5 per cent. if she sailed with convoy. She left England under convoy. On her arrival on the Swedish coast, near Wingo Sound, she struck upon a rock, and was so much damaged by the shock, that it was found necessary to take her into Gottenburgh to be repaired, and there she arrived on the 16th of October, 1810. Upon examining her hull, it turned out that she was so much injured, as to render it necessary to take out her freight, which was warehoused in the custom-house. The ship was not again ready for sea until the 7th of May last, when the captain applied for the goods, but to his utter surprise, they were refused, and were kept from him by direction of the government. He, as well as the agent of the plaintiffs, afterwards petitioned the king of Sweden for their restoration, but without the desired effect; the plaintiffs therefore instituted the present action for the amount of the loss alleged to be sustained. It further appeared from the testimony of the witnesses, that a proclamation declaratory of the war with England, was posted up

on the walls of the exchange of Gottenburgh on the 17th of November, 1810. There was no condemnation or confiscation from the time they were warehoused, until the ship quitted Sweden; nor did it appear that they had yet been condemned.

Verdict for plaintiff.

COURT OF EXCHEQUER.—EDINBURGH.

A cause of great importance, both to the revenue and to the fair trader, was lately determined in the Court of Exchequer. A brewer was prosecuted at the instance of the Commissioners of Excise, for the recovery of a penalty of £200. sterling, incurred by using, contrary to the statute, two-thirds of raw grain along with malt, in the manufacture of beer. On the part of the prosecution it was stated, that in this case, there was a direct violation of the law, which prohibits in express terms, the use of every thing excepting malt and hops. But it was contended by the counsel for the defendant, that although raw grain was put into the mashing-tub along with a certain proportion of malt, the raw grain, after being dried and ground and mashed, that is dissolved in water, actually became malt, or was converted into a substance possessing all the properties of malt prepared in the usual way. This argument, so far as we understood it, rested on some explanation of the process which was given by a witness brought forward by the defendant. It was answered by the counsel for the prosecution, that as the law was clear and distinct, the defendant, by his own admission, had incurred the statutory penalty, as he did not deny having employed raw grain in making beer.

The Lord Advocate stated, that this was an attempt, on the part of the brewer, to defraud the revenue, and in that view it became a matter of most serious consideration; for if such practices were passed over, and if every one were allowed to brew in the same manner, the revenue of the country would be most materially injured; because no duties could ever be levied in such cases. There would be a complete evasion of the law. In the case before the court the defendant evaded the statute by using two-thirds of raw grain in making beer, which grain never was in a situation to pay the duty, for it is only while the grain is in its progress towards its conversion into malt that the duty can be imposed, and the amount estimated; but the raw grain used by the defendant never having been in the state of malt, no duty whatever could be levied upon it. Here, after stating the various legislative enactments relative to the duty on malt, his lordship observed, that the law allows the excise-officer to search the steeps, and watch the progress of the malting process, to see that the brewer pays the duty fairly; and besides, the brewer is requested to transmit to the excise within a month, a correct state of the whole malt which he manufactures. From all this it is perfectly obvious, that the legislature meant that the brewer should pay the full duty for the whole malt which he used; but in this case the defendant evaded the statute by using a very small proportion of malt which paid the duty, and a very large proportion of raw grain, on which no duty whatever could be levied.

His lordship then read part of the account of the process for preparing malt, as it is detailed under the article MALTING, page 463, Tradesman's Magazine for June last, where it is stated that grain cannot be malted without being brought to the state of germina-

tion; and the method of accomplishing this object is first by steeping the grain, and then by throwing it together into a heap. "But the defendant," said his lordship, "does not allow it to germinate in any part of his brewing process; for after having dried it on a kiln, and ground it, he puts it into the mash tub, so that it never could be in those circumstances which are essentially necessary to convert it into malt. What has been stated by a witness brought forward by the defendant may be very true; it may accord very well with fine chemical theories; but it has nothing to do with the present question. No such minute distinctions were in the contemplation of the legislature in making the enactment, which prohibits the use of grain in brewing in any other state than in that of malt prepared by the common process." In concluding his speech, his lordship pressed the importance of the case on the consideration of the jury, and trusted that their decision would effectually defeat an attempt to defraud the revenue of the country.

COURT OF EXCHEQUER, DUBLIN.

Messrs. Carlton, v. *The Atlas Assurance Company.*—The plaintiffs, who are very eminent merchants in the city of Dublin, had effected, in November last, three several insurances with the Atlas, Eagle, and Hope Assurance Companies, on their windmill, stores, and other extensive concerns on the North Wall, which were afterwards totally consumed by accidental fire. The action, in this case, was against the Atlas Assurance Company, for £3000. the sum assured with that office. The defence was, that a previous policy of insurance on the same premises had been effected by the plaintiffs with the Commercial Company, for the sum of £10,000.; that the said policy was in existence and force at the time the plaintiffs effected the assurance with the defendants and other English companies, and that the defendants had not received proper notice of such policy. At the same time, the Atlas Company had offered the sum of £1400. as their full proportion of the loss; but the Commercial Company, of which one of the plaintiffs, it was stated, was a stockholder and director, refused to pay one shilling. The defendants, to prove their case, called on the plaintiffs to produce their policy with the Commercial Company, which they refused; but a statement on their part was produced and read, in which they admitted that they held such a policy, which did not expire till the 1st of December, 1810, two days preceding which the fire happened.

Here the court suggested to the plaintiff's council to consider well the prudence of pressing the case further—that the three English offices seemed to act in concert together, and if the issue of this trial should prove unfavourable, it might so happen that they would not recover a shilling from either English or Irish.—After a conference between the counsel, which lasted for a considerable time, it was agreed on the part of the plaintiffs, to accept the sum offered by the Atlas Assurance Company, to withdraw a Juror, and pay the costs of the defendants. This adjustment met the entire approbation of the judge who presided.

RIGHT OF PATENT.

Forsyth v. *Vickers, Beckwith, and Mortimer.*—This was a motion to dissolve an injunction, which had been obtained by the plaintiff, in order to prevent the defendants from selling gun-locks formed upon the principle of an invention for which the plaintiff had ob-

tained a patent, until the decision of a court of law could be had with respect to the right, the plaintiff having brought an action against the defendants for the violation of that which he considered as vested in him by the patent. The patent was for the construction of gun-locks, by the action of which a more speedy ignition of the *pulvis fulminans* would be effected than by any anterior invention; and Vickers, who had been formerly in the employ of the patentee, having become acquainted with the method of constructing the locks, had communicated the art to the other two defendants, who, together with him, now offered them for sale.

The right set up by the defendants to manufacture the locks was grounded on the fact, that the capability of the *pulvis fulminans* to be ignited by percussion, the manner in which the plaintiff's lock produced inflammation, was known before he had obtained the patent; but the plaintiff's council observed, that it was not for the ignition of the *pulvis fulminans* by percussion that the patent had been obtained, but for its *more speedy* ignition, which the lock effected by confining the energy of the principle, and directing it more fully to its object than had been hitherto done.

It was contended, on behalf of the defendants, on the other hand, that if the injunction was not dissolved, they would lose the sale of their guns during the sporting season, and thereby, if on the decision of the cause pending they should appear to have justice on their side, they would sustain an irretrievable injury.

His lordsuip said, that the injunction must be sustained; but that the plaintiff must bring his action forthwith against one of the defendants, in the selection of whom the other two must concur.

MONTHLY RETROSPECT.

FOREIGN AFFAIRS.

Portugal.—THE tranquillity of this long-harassed country, by the successful efforts, and the commanding presence of Lord Wellington, must be hailed with pleasure. It is that presence which keeps the enemy at a respectful distance within the limits of Spain. Considering our gallant general's proceedings in the view of protection from the insulting foe, we feel that his measures are intimately connected with the safety of this country, at the same time that they are directed to the emancipation of Spain, as an ultimate object. The detachments of Marmont to reinforce the army of the savage Suchet, the *ci-devant* barber, in Valencia, have been recalled, as the allied troops, as soon as the season of operations permits, are preparing to renew the investment of Cuidad Rodrigo, and we have this moment received the information, that this measure has already commenced.

Spain.—The detachments of Soult, which have compelled him to remain in a state of inactivity, to which we alluded in our last report, were probably directed to the siege of Tariffa, which has been attacked by about five thousand infantry, and three hundred cavalry. The numbers have been augmented, by

report, to ten thousand infantry; but this is supposed to be an exaggeration. From the most recent accounts we learn, that, after an unsuccessful bombardment, they have been once more compelled to retreat, and that the active Ballasteros was pressing upon them in the rear. In his turn we again expect to hear of his falling back; but this kind of harassing warfare must rapidly tend to diminish the strength of the enemy, as well as prevent Soult from sending reinforcements to Suchet, should he be disposed (which we much doubt) to contribute his endeavours to crown his brows with another wreath of glory.

We had hoped to continue our favourable hopes respecting the city of Valencia; but a recent letter from the south of Spain is less propitious to our wishes than we had flattered ourselves to learn by the next dispatches. That it does not positively ascertain the fall of Valencia on the 26th of December, must be admitted; but we are less sanguine in our expectations respecting it than we had very recently indulged the hope of. The amount of Suchet's force, of 28,000 men we cannot but consider as exaggerated, even with all the drains he has made from Catalonia and Arragon; and we would still wish to suspend our belief of this account being strictly correct. We shall indeed have cause to repeat our observation, that Blake has been unfortunate, if it should ultimately prove that he and his army have been made prisoners of war, by the furious and destructive measure of Suchet's whole army having stormed the place, in which many brave men must have lost their lives.

Catalonia and Arragon, in the north-east parts of the peninsula, have afforded us some considerable information of a cheering nature. The operations in that quarter are represented officially as of a nature which must soon expose the forces of the enemy to be cut of, from which they had lately had a narrow escape. It is also stated that the news from Arragon is no less encouraging. At one stroke, the enemy lost a thousand men; and a report, entitled to credit, though not absolutely confirmed, states that Mina had lately attacked and defeated six thousand recruits or conscripts. The same accounts also add, that the French army in Arragon was then very small, as Suchet had drained it of all its disposable force; and that the garrisons remaining in Saragossa, Daroca, and Jaca, were very weak, and but barely sufficient to maintain a communication. A communication between Tortosa and Murviedro, it is also stated, has been cut off by a new party of guerillas; but the importance of this measure must depend on Suchet's success at Valencia. That must of course be soon restored, if the account received from Gibraltar respecting it should prove, in any moderate degree, correct. We are also informed that their reinforcements in those provinces are but barely sufficient to supply their loss by casualties; and, if the accounts relative to

Mina's defeat of the conscripts shall be confirmed, of which we have little doubt, it sufficiently discovers the description of force of which those supplies or reinforcements consist.

For a considerable period we have had no news of importance from Cadiz, of a military nature, excepting what relates to the enemy's attack on Tariffa. But the debates and declarations of divers members of the cortes have been interesting and spirited, respecting the appointment of a regency, and the organization of a regular government, to conduct the executive, in the interval between the dissolution of the present cortes, and the election and assembling of another. But these are not of a very recent date, and were appointed for future and particular discussion, the result of which has not yet come to hand.

Of the farther operations of the army we have to note the movement of General Hill from Portalegre and its vicinity, with the troops of Morella and Penne, consisting of fifteen thousand men, and establishing himself at Merida, to the eastward of Badajoz. It was added, that he proposed to fix his head quarters in Llerena; a change of position which must essentially affect the operations of Soult, Marmont, and Suchet, and cause a very material alteration in the disposition of the enemy's forces. But the last accounts are, that he meant to establish himself at Merida, where he found a very considerable supply of stores and ammunition; a position, which must occasion some alarm for the town of Badajoz, as it must seriously affect their supplies of provisions. We have also to add, that Lord Wellington has not only made a movement, and changed his head quarters, but is establishing bridges across the Agueda, sufficient to carry over heavy artillery for the attack of Cuidad Rodrigo; for which purpose some Portuguese troops had already crossed that river, to be in readiness for some important service, which Lord Wellington at that time had in contemplation, though kept a profound secret. We learn this moment, that he has surprized in the most gallant manner the works erected in a commanding situation, to defend that city, and has converted them into a means of offensive operations, by which he would speedily be enabled to open batteries against it within a short distance.

France.—We have little to observe of the occurrences of this country since our last. Their papers, for some time, have been wholly destitute of interest; and their silence on the affairs of the peninsula is a pretty strong argument, that the enemy has nothing favourable to his cause to communicate to his *good* subjects at home, or his *good* friends in other countries. On the probable event of a rupture, however, between that country and Russia, we have lately seen some flaming predictions, descriptive of the consequences. With the rapidity of an eagle, we are told, he is to overrun the plains of Poland, and

reduce that plentiful country to his dominion in a fortnight. It may be so; but we have the example of Spain before us, which was to have been finally subdued years ago, and yet, after having sacrificed several hundred thousands of his best troops, it is not yet subdued, and, according to apparent circumstances, the peninsula is at least as far distant from an entire conquest, as it was at the time of these insolent vauntings. Of the king of Rome there has been such a profound silence for some months past, that we should scarcely know if such a being was in existence, did not that fallacious, or at least uncertain property of the human faculties, called memory, preserve to our recollection the interesting particulars of be——g his nurse, or cutting his first tooth, as matters of HIGH IMPORTANCE to the people of France in particular, and to the world in general!

Northern Powers.—With respect to the relative situation of Russia, the latest accounts, by way of Heligoland, attempt to throw doubts on the termination of war with Turkey. We should feel extreme anxiety at the suggestions, did we not know the various machinations practised by the creatures and the emissaries of France to disguise truth, and to deceive the public. We flatter ourselves, that this will ultimately appear to be the true state of the case. We have long pressed the necessity of peace between those two powers, as essential to the independence of Russia; and, in our hope of its having been effected, we cannot but feel a very lively interest. Such a measure we consider as connected, in the fullest manner, with the existence of Russia as an independent empire. As a question of policy, our opinion has long been formed. We have stated it boldly and undauntedly. We have been convinced of its necessity, from the long-continued and convulsed state of Europe, through the restless ambition of a tyrannical usurper. It is with Great Britain alone that Russia can form any salutary commercial or military connection; but Great Britain is not only just, but generous, and no continental power has ever any just cause, when thoroughly investigated, to accuse her of indirect motives, or of unprovoked aggression. But on this subject, during this season of maritime interruption of all correspondence or commerce, we must suspend our farther observations.

In turning to Sweden, we see with some feelings of interest the proclamation of the crown prince, respecting the military system of the country. From some causes or other, we cannot but be convinced, that hostilities of some kind or other are to be expected in the north of Europe, as the year advances. The idea of offensive war is deprecated, but a plan of defence is deemed to be necessary. We might indulge ourselves in a speculation, where the line is to be drawn between the amount of a defensive or an offensive army. We might proceed to dis-

cuss the probabillty of the one, whilst we are contemplating the possibility of the other. But we will not suffer ourselves to run riot in such kind of speculations. It is not impossible that Bernadotte may take for the model of his conduct some of the generals of the renowned Alexander, and provide, in political prudence, for a slice of that over-grown empire, by way of anticipation, which, sooner or later, may possibly be divided among his generals, such as the *ci-devant* barber, &c. unless prevented by restoring the ancient royal family of France. In either case, we think that the crown prince, in associating himself with the northern powers, will most effectually provide for his own permanent security; and we cannot help thinking, that he knows enough of his late master to be satisfied that, if he should promote the tyrant's views of humbling Russia, a pretence would not long be wanting to annex Sweden, as he did Holland and Italy, to the French empire, and Denmark and Prussia must be annihilated of course.

On looking to the intelligence respecting Denmark, the proceedings of the French at Hamburgh and in its vicinity may, at length, have opened the eyes of that government to discover the true policy of their country. The withdrawing their forces from that city, and dismantling the forts of Cuxhaven, &c. on the opposite bank of the Elbe, may have encouraged the Danes to manifest a more friendly disposition towards Great Britain, and to discover the motives which impelled our government to take possession of their fleet, to prevent its falling into the possession of the continental tyrant, as, it is well known, was devised on one hand and determined on the other. We shall be happy to find, that they are thus late, rather than obstinately persevering in error, recovered from their lethargy, into which Gallic fascination had so completely lulled them. It is never too late to mend; and we shall hail the day when we can once more coalesce with them as friends and relatives, and cordially unite with them in one common cause against usurping tyranny and the most infamous oppression.

East Indies.—The completion of the brilliant achievement recorded in our last report, has been effected in a manner highly creditable to the British arms. The escape of the French general, with the wreck of his vanquished army, was of little avail. The pursuit of the British and peninsular Indians left him no time to make another effort to recover his lost honour. Deserted by the natives he found it useless to protract his opposition to the British heroes, and terminated the contest by submitting on such terms as our gallant general deemed it proper to grant; and rather than hazard the alternative of an immediate attack, felt himself compelled to accept such terms, without the least modification, as his victorious enemy thought fit to propose. Thus the entire conquest of all the islands, heretofore belonging to the Dutch as well as the French, in the

Indian seas, have been annexed to the British dominions. Thus speedily has a gallant European army obtained, by a complete possession of the island, and the friendship of the native powers, the means of resting in the most healthy parts of that climate, hitherto deemed unfavourable to Europeans, by which we trust, they will essentially be relieved from that excessive relaxation it is naturally adapted to occasion. We hope the suggestions contained in our last report will not be overlooked, with a view to ameliorate the climate and situation, by draining the marshes of the country.

North America.—Of the conduct of the government of the United States, and of the general disposition of congress, towards Great Britain, recently manifested, we had thought there could have been but one opinion. Open war with Great Britain! Deprive us of Canada! Wrest from us Nova Scotia! These are fine speeches! But how are they to be realized? West Florida and the country bordering on the Mississippi are to be annexed to them as confederate states! This is bold language to the ear in congress; to the eye, upon paper. But we ask again, how are these projects to be realized? Whilst we are viewing these declarations with a view to their effect, we might feel surprized at the lucubrations of some of our periodical, and even daily prints, which are now lying before us, did we not know that it is their peculiar fort to pervert every thing which any administration, hostile to their party, either do or can do; and that, whatever alternative the government may adopt, it is sure of their condemnation. There are writers of this disposition who pretend to affect vast alarm for the growing state of the French marine, and who consequently deprecate the idea of employing any part of our navy to chastise the insolence of these bullying hectors. But such persons never once dream, that the whole navy of Great Britain, was it ten times greater than it is, can prevent the enemy from building ships, when he is disposed so to do; and they forget also the statement of that list which they monthly present to their readers, and will doubtless renew within a very few days, where they would perceive, if they were not determined to remain blind, or obstinately incorrigible, that Great Britain could afford to dispatch some hundreds of her cruizing vessels for that service, and yet have an abundant "surrounding force," to intimidate and over-awe the Gallic marine. We repeat that it is no less necessary to hang upon our enemy on the coast of America than in every other quarter. This is a quarter from whence he continues to goad us, when he is disabled from doing it on his own shores. We are told that "the first operation of interruption, by a war with America, will be that of relieving him from the restraint which, for the present, hampers and confines his growth!" That is highly improbable, we may say impossible, in the present exalted state of our navy; and

if some hundreds of cruizers, which could be spared to this service should not be sufficient, we are not afraid that, under a modified system of prize captures, many public spirited persons would be found to fit out privateers to chastise such insolent vauntings. It is not our wish to fan the flame of discord, and provoke any class of people to hostilities; but let us maintain that dignified spirit which we feel ourselves competent to support, and tell the world, and ring it in the ears of congress, that we fear not war with them, and that their bullying menaces have no influence on our conduct, or in the least occasion our forbearance. But we must reserve our farther remarks to our next report.

South America.—The spirit of independence seems to be gaining ground in this part of the globe, or at least to be in such a state as to be ripe for a declaration of its intentions. It is a word of fine sound, and has a very plausible and specious aspect. In an age of revolutions we are not to be surprized at it. Yet we would recommend to its votaries a serious consideration of what France has obtained by that spirit; or whether the revolutionary stages through which that nation has passed, have been very favourable to the cause of liberty. We look at ideas of independence, under such circumstances, if not with horror, at least with the extremity of alarm. We feel for the miseries brought upon our fellow-creatures, by their ambitious proceedings, and revert to the condition of their past comparative felicity, contrasted with the sanguinary proceedings of revolutionary frenzy.

DOMESTIC.

The proceedings which have lately taken place in Ireland, relative to the catholic meetings, will soon be followed up by others in which the legality of those proceedings will come under discussion, and the conduct of each party be duly appreciated. We shall not attempt, therefore, to anticipate the result, or to manifest a disposition of pre-judging the merits or demerits of the claims of the catholics. Whatever opinion we may entertain on that subject, so far as we have had the means of considering them, shall, for the present, remain within our own breasts. To the legal investigators of the laws on that topic, and to the established judges of the land, whose business it professedly is, we shall be content to leave the determination. We may therefore turn our attention to another subject, the continued affliction of our venerable monarch. From causes of humanity and respect, independent of our duty as subjects, we cannot but deplore his long and lamentable sufferings. Yet we cannot but consider its duration as a favourable and providential act of mercy to this empire. It has afforded time for the ebullition of party spirit. It has presented the means of his respected representative to discover men as well as manners. It has proved the most salutary event which the natives could

possibly have desired, for its permanent advantage (could we separate it from its unfortunate cause), by representing in the most striking point of view the difference between frothy professions and declamation of solid and steady practice. We trust also, that such wholesome provisions will be soon enacted for the support and well-being of the government, and the comfort and dignity of our monarch's gracious representative, as may ensure to the nation the continuance of internal peace and felicity, and ultimately tend to produce permanent tranquillity with all the nations of the earth.

COMMERCIAL REPORT.

FOREIGN.

France.—IT has been for some time understood that licences granted by the French government had been called in, with a view of forming fresh regulations, respecting the mode, terms, and extent of them, so as to enlarge the sphere of commercial operations.

We had hoped that the importation of sugars and coffee in certain proportions would have been authorized under the new regulations, but from the copy of the new licences annexed, it will appear not to be the case. Now Buonaparte has so far conceded as to give up the compulsory condition of exporting wines and brandies, and to all the exportation of raw silk, we may hope that our government will enlarge the range of its licences, in the hope of inducing a correspondent extension on the part of the French government. The opening that was made by the British licences has been fairly met by Buonaparte, and the more he witnesses the advantages to be derived from commercial intercourse, the more disposed will he become still further to relax the restrictions upon trade. The following is the extract of the new licences:

"The licences are for two voyages, and permit the cargo of the vessel to be composed of twenty-five thousand killograms in silk train, organzines, and raw to sew with, of the produce of Piedmont, or of the kingdom of Italy; and further, of the produce of the soil or the manufactures of the French empire, which are not prohibited from exportation.

"The quantities of the silks laden shall be noted upon the licences at the port of lading, at each of the two voyages which the vessel is authorized to make, so that the total exportation of the two voyages does not exceed the quantity of twenty-five thousand killograms.

"The vessel is allowed to return to the same port in ballast, or to import ship timber, lignum vitæ, deals, staves, wainscot, Russia matts, and sail cloth, amounting in all to three hundred

thousand francs at most, whatever the surplus in value of the exported articles may have been, and whether the importation be made in one or two voyages.

"In case the vessel should not export from France a value of three hundred thousand francs, she may return only with goods to the amount thereof. No time specified in the licence, and given to England direct."

We are concerned to state, that the latest advices from Liebaw, by the last Anholt mail, speak confidently of serious losses which the late outward bound fleet to the Baltic had sustained; they state, that twenty-two ships of the convoy in question, had been captured by the Dantzic privateers, and most of them taken into that port. Should this intelligence prove true, a more disastrous close of the season in the Baltic has seldom been experienced; and it ought to serve as a useful lesson, that the homeward bound fleet should sail for England at least a month earlier in the season. We can state with confidence, that several ammunition ships have safely arrived at Colberg, and delivered their cargoes.

Denmark.—His majesty has lately issued a severe edict against smuggling, and all species of commerce detrimental to the trade of Denmark: he has ordered that frequent patroles should be stationed along the western coasts of the duchies from Ballun to Braunsbuttel, both by sea and land, to ensure the execution of his decrees. Such vessels as may sail from or come into any place, not included in the edict, and under the controul of the patroles, will be confiscated, together with their cargoes, the commanders of the vessels will be imprisoned from eight days to a month, and the penalty will be more severe on a renewal of the offence; viz. from three to six months confinement in a house of correction.

Warsaw.—His majesty, in order to favour the commerce of transit through our duchy, has ordered, that, from the 1st of January next, the passage of merchandize, &c. shall not be subjected to any transit duty.

By two other decrees his majesty has permitted the exportation of horses and black cattle, as well as that of raw hides, on the payment of certain duties.

DOMESTIC.

With respect to importations, the cargoes of grain arrived since our last has been very inconsiderable, as the weather has not been favourable for many arrivals yet, from the Baltic; and from Holland and France none can be expected, as corn is extremely scarce in both those countries. Yet we have had several arrivals with butter and cheese, much to the advantage of the consignees.

The Board of Trade, at the commencement of the month, gave notice of a new arrangement with respect to the licences

granted for commerce to Norway, in a restriction upon the importations from that country. It has been determined by their lordships, that none in future shall be issued for imports, excepting to such ships as take exports from hence of British goods to the value of five pounds for each ton of their bulk.

The East India company, on a representation from the manufacturers of camblets at Norwich, have extended their order for the above kind of goods from 16,000 to 22,000 pieces this season.

BANKRUPTS.

BANKRUPTCIES.

(The Solicitors' Names are between Parentheses.)

ABSALOM G. Wallingford, Berks, innkeeper, Jan. 13, 14, and Feb. 11. (Mr. Shaen, Wallingford; and Vandercom and Comyn, Bush lane, Cannon street, London

Adlington E. A. Liverpool, tobacconist, Feb. 10, 12, and 29. (Parr and Thompson, Liverpool

Anderson D. Billiter lane, merchant, Jan. 7, 21, and Feb. 15. (Wilde and Knight, Castle street, Falcon square

Ashfield T. Shadwell, money scrivener, Jan. 11, 25, and Feb. 18. (Mr. Nelson, Palsgrave place, Temple bar

Barker R. Kingston-upon-Hull, merchant, Jan. 3, 18, and Feb. 11. (Rosser and Son, Bartlett's buildings, Holborn, London; and Mr. G. Haire, Hull

Barnacott T. late of Plymouth, carpenter, Jan. 22, 23, and Feb. 25. (Drewe and Loxham, New inn, London; and Mr. N. Hyne, Old Town, Plymouth

Bilger M. sen. and M. Bilger, jun. Piccadilly, goldsmiths, Dec. 28, Jan. 7, and Feb. 4. (Aldridge and Smith, Lincoln's inn, New square

Boldero C., E. G. Boldero, Sir H. Inshington, Bart. and H. Boldero, Cornhill, bankers, Jan. 11, 21, and Feb. 15. (Mr. Lamb, Princes street, Bank

Carr S. Sheffield, York, spirit merchant, Jan. 15, 16, and Feb. 11. (Mr. C. Brookfield, Sheffield; and Sykes and Knowles, New inn, London

Carrington W. jun. Flixton, Lancaster, manufacturer, Jan. 6, 7, and Feb. 4. (Halstead and Ainsworth, Manchester; and Miln and Parry, Temple, London

Clark J. Broad street, St. James's, Westminster, upholsterer, Jan. 11, 18, and Feb. 11. (Mr. E. Allen, Carlisle street, Soho

Clarke J. jun. late of Mersham, Kent, shopkeeper, Jan. 27, 28, and Feb. 22. (De Lasaux and Boghurst, Ashford; and Pearson and Son, Middle Temple, London

Clarkson M. late of Birmingham, butcher, Jan. 18, 22, and Feb. 25. (Mr. Jukes, Belvidere place, St. George's, Surrey

Coldicottt J. W. Coventry, leather seller, Jan. 3, 4, and Feb. 8. (Meyrick and Broderip, Red Lion square, London; and Mr. Wilmot, or Troughton and Lea, Coventry

Crossley E. Kingston-upon-Hull, slopseller, Jan. 18, 21, and Feb. 25. (Exley, Stocker, and Dawson, Furnival's inn, London; and Mr. Cotsworth, Kingston-upon-Hull

Dale J. Irlam, Lancaster, innkeeper, Jan. 13, 14, and Feb. 4. (Mr. Meddowcroft, Gray's inn, London; and Mr. Davies, Fenwick street, Liverpool

Davies J. Worcester, glover, Feb. 11, 12, and 29. (Mr. Platt, Temple, London; and Mr. James, Worcester

Deale C. Newgate street, tailor, Jan. 4, 7, and Feb. 4. (Williams and Wilmot, New inn

Dunthorn J. Lidgate, Suffolk, surgeon, Jan. 28, 29, and Feb. 25. (Mr. Cooper, Cambridge; and Windus and Holtaway, Chancery-lane

Fazakerley J. Liverpool, tailor, Jan. 18, 22, and Feb. 4. (Mr. Arch. Keightley, Liverpool; and Tarrant, Clarke, and Richards, Chancery lane, London

Fitzpatrick J. St. Mary hill, fishmonger, Jan. 25, and Feb. 29. (Mr. Hill, Rood lane, Fenchurch street

Foot J. Stanton Drew, Somerset, dealer, Jan. 2, 11, and Feb. 8. (Whitcombe and King, Serjeant's inn, Fleet street, London; and Mr. J. H. Frankis, St. John street, Bristol

Ford J. Swan lane, Rotherhithe, cow-keeper, Jan. 4, 21, and Feb. 8. (Mr. Ingold, Printer's place, Bermondsey

Gadesby W. jun. late of Canterbury, cabinet maker, Dec. 30, Jan. 20, and Feb. 4. (Mr. Hodges, Canterbury; and Brace and Plomer, Essex court, Temple, London

Glover S. late of Petticoat lane, London, victualler, Dec. 31, Jan. 7, and Feb. 4. (Mr. Cuppage, Jermyn street, St. James's

Godshall C. of the Royal Exchange, wine merchant, Jan. 11, 18, and Feb. 11. (Mr. Allison, Freeman's court, Cornhill

Griffiths B. jun. Birmingham, gunmaker, Jan. 13, 14, and Feb. 4. (Mr. Bodfield, Hind court, Fleet street, London; and Mr. Meredith, Great Charles street, Birmingham

Hale T. Worcester, glover, Jan. 21, Feb. 1, 29. (Mr. Pownal, Staple inn

Hamer W. Pemberton, Lancaster, tanner, Jan. 30, 31, and Feb. 18. (Shephard, Adlington, and Gregory, Bedford row, London

Heritage J. late of Leominster, Hereford, horse dealer, Jan. 15, 16, and Feb. 11. (Mr. B. Coates, Leominster; and Williams and Darke, Prince's street, Bedford row, London

Holroyd W. late of Holland street, Blackfriar's road, victualler, Jan. 11, 21, and Feb. 18. (Mr. Lucas, Webber street, Blackfriar's road

Holt J. late of Leeds, York, butcher, Jan. 10, 11, and Feb. 11. (Mr. T. H. Granger, Leeds; and Mr. Lake, Dowgate hill, London

Howson J. Lancaster, victualler, Jan. 17, 18, and Feb. 8. (Caton and Brumell, Aldersgate street, London; and Mr. Parker, Lancaster

Hughes C. London, merchant, Jan. 29, Feb. 1, and 29. (Messrs. Caton and Brumell, Aldersgate st.

Hughes H. Basinghall street, cloth factor, Jan. 11, 21, and Feb. 18. (Blandford and Murray, Mitre court buildings, Temple, London

Humble M. late of Wapping, Middlesex, ship chandler, Dec. 28, Jan. 4, and Feb. 4. (Palmer, Tomlinsons, and Thomson, Copthall court, Throgmorton street

Hunt H. Worcester, skinner, Jan. 27, 28, and Feb. 18. (Mr. J. Pownall, Staple inn, London; and Mr. S. Haden, Worcester

Joynson W. Manchester, miller, Jan. 20, 21, and Feb. 15. (Mr. Parker, Bury, Lancaster; and Mr. Wiglesworth, Gray's inn square, London

Kamp F. High street, Mary-le-bone, upholder, Jan. 29, Feb. 1, 29

Kent T. late of London street, Ratcliffe, Middlesex, mealman, Dec. 31, Jan. 14, and Feb. 14. (Mr. Rich, Ratcliff cross, London

Kiddiford D. Basinghall street, warehouseman, Jan. 18, 22, and Feb. 18. (Blandford and Murray, Mitre court buildings, Temple

King R. Tooley street, Southwark, hatter, Jan. 4, 11, and Feb. 8. (Mr. D. Jones, Size lane, London

King W. Winslow, Buckingham, innholder, Jan. 11, 21, and Feb. 15. (Mr. C. Willis. Winslow; and Aubrey and Curtis, Took's court, Cursitor street

Lamb W. Stockport, Chester, cotton spinner, Jan. 9, 10, and Feb. 8. (Mr. Baddeley, Stockport; and Milne and Parry, Temple, London

Lambert S. A. Bread street, underwriter, Jan. 25, Feb. 1, and 29. (Vandercom and Comyn, Bush lane, Cannon street

Levy E. Exeter, merchant, Jan. 22, Feb. 13, and 25. (Williams and Darke, Princes street, Bedford row, London; and Mr. J. Terrell, North street, Exeter

Lushington W. sen. and W. Lushington, jun. Mark lane, merchants, Jan. 21, 28, and Feb. 28. (Mr. Healing, Lawrence lane, Cheapside

Lyon M. Liverpool, silversmith, Jan. 27, 28, and Feb. 15. (Mr. Meddowcroft, Gray's inn, London; and Mr. J. Davies, Liverpool

M'Cormick J. Broad street, merchant, Jan. 18, 28, and Feb. 25. (Mr. G. Adams, Old Jewry

Macdonald A. Liverpool, merchant, Jan. 17, 18, and Feb. 8. (Cooper and Lowe, Southampton buildings, Chancery lane, London; and Orred and Baines, Liverpool

Maggs G. Bristol, linen draper, Dec. 31, Jan. 11, and Feb. 8. (Mr. Shepherd, Bartlett's buildings, Holborn

M'Swiney E. Westmoreland place, City road, merchant, Jan. 11, 21, and Feb. 18. (Mr. Crawford, Broad street

Manley R. and J. Holness, Russell street, Southwark, leather dyers, Jan. 18, 28, and Feb. 22. (Mr. Drew, Bermondsey street, Southwark

Marris T. Barton-upon-Humber, and R. Nicholson, Glamford Briggs, Lincoln, bankers, Jan. 18, Feb. 4, and 25. (Mr. F. Edwards, Symond's inn, Chancery lane

Mavor J. Leadenhall street, merchant, Jan. 18, 25, and Feb. 22. (Weston and Teesdale, Fenchurch street

Melling E. and T. H. Higginson, Liverpool, merchants, Jan. 22, 23, and Feb. 11. (Mr. Clements, Liverpool; and Blackstock and Bunce, Temple, London

Mole G. and W. Mole, Bread street hill, merchants, Jan. 4, 11, and Feb. 11. (Gatty and Haddan, Angel court, Throgmorton street

Molecroft G. and S. Bates, late of Birmingham, corn dealers, Jan. 15, 16, and Feb. 18. (Willis, Fairthorne and Clarke, Warnford court, London; and Birch, Foster and Bishop, Rugely, Stafford

Munn J. Worcester, maltster, Feb. 11, 12, and 29. (Mr. J. Platt, Tanfield court, Temple

Newcomb O. Holles street, Cavendish square, upholsterer, Jan. 21, Feb. 1, and 29. (Mr. Newcomb, Vine street, Piccadilly

Norman H. St. Neot's, Huntingdon, corn dealer, Jan. 21, 22, and Feb. 8. (Mr. T. Sewell, Chatteris, Isle of Ely; and Leigh and Mason, New Bridge street, London

Notley G. late of Dartford, Kent, innholder, Jan. 14, 21, and Feb. 22. (Rose and Munnings, Gray's inn square; and Mr. T. B. Fooks, Dartford, Kent

Pett J. Deal, Kent, carpenter, Jan. 11, 18, and Feb. 15. (Mr. W. Hughes, Christchurch passage, Newgate street

Pope J. Truro, Cornwall, grocer, Jan. 7, 8, and Feb. 8. (Shephard, Adlington and Gregory, Bedford row, Bloomsbury; and Mr. J. James, Truro

Price J. Bath, Somerset, bookseller, Jan. 11, 18, and Feb. 11. (Mr. Smith, Tokenhouse yard, Lothbury

Riddiford D. Basinghall street, warehouseman, Jan. 18, 22, and Feb. 22. (Blandford and Murray, Mitre court buildings, Temple

Robinson T. Windsor place, City road, builder, Jan. 18, 25, and Feb. 22. (Mr. Lee, Castle street, Holborn

Roffey G. late of Great St. Helens, London, ship agent, Dec. 31, Jan. 7, and Feb. 4. (Mr. Kirton, New Broad street, Royal Exchange

Roxby J. Westowe, Durham, ship owner, Jan. 18, Feb. 10, and 25. (Mr. C. Bainbridge, South Shields; and Bell and Brodrick, Bow lane, Cheapside, London

Royle J. Manchester, warehouseman, Jan. 18, 21, and Feb. 11. (Mr. Ellis, Chancery lane, London; and Knight and Hadfield, Manchester

Sadler J. Q. Lisle street, Leicester fields, coach maker, Jan. 25, Feb. 1, and 29. (Mr. Raphael, Keppel st.

Samuel N. Liverpool, silversmith, Jan. 17, 18, and Feb. 18. (Mr. Mendowcroft, Gray's inn, London; and Mr. J. Davies, Liverpool

Sandham J. Arundel, Sussex, grocer, Jan. 20, 21, and Feb. 11. (Mr. J. Champ, Chichester; and Mr. J. Clark, St. Paul's Church yard, London

Saunders G. Queen street, Ratcliffe, coal merchant, Jan. 25, Feb. 1, and 29. (Mr. Rich, Ratcliff cross

Senate E. of Southampton row, Bloomsbury, medicine vender, Jan. 21, Feb. 3, and 25. (Mr. J. Hamilton, Berwick street, Soho

Simpson J. South Parade, Queen's Elms, bricklayer and builder, Jan. 25, 28, and Feb. 29. (Mr. Newcomb, Vine street

Sharp W. Bradford, York, calico manufacturer, Jan. 9, 11, and Feb. 8. (Knight and Hadfield, Manchester; and Mr. Hurd, Temple, London

Shuttleworth H. late of Ludgate hill, optician, Dec. 31, Jan. 7, and Feb. 4. (Denton and Barker, Gray's inn

Smith J. late of Blue Anchor lane, Bermondsey, paper maker, Jan. 18, 22, and Feb. 25. (Mr. Hughes, Dean street, Fetter lane

Smith W. and E. Becket, Liverpool, linen drapers, Jan. 23, 24, and Feb. 15. (Mr. Forrest, Jubilee buildings, Lord street, Liverpool; and Mr. Windle, John street, Bedford row, London

Snowden W. Manchester, liquor merchant, Jan. 16, 21, and Feb. 15. (Foulkes and Creswell, Manchester; and Longdill and Beckitt, Gray's inn, London

Sparrow J. late of the East India Chambers, Leadenhall street, wine broker, Jan. 11, 18, and Feb. 8. (Mr. Rooke, Armourers' and Braziers' hall, Coleman street

Starke R. Belvidere place, Southyark; bricklayer, Jan. 21, Feb. 1, 29. (Mr. J. Newton, St. Andrew's hill, Doctor's Commons

Stockton F. D. late of Bulham, carpenter, Dec. 31, Jan. 4, and Feb. 8. (Mr. Emly, Essex court, Temple

Stone J. Lower Halliford, Middlesex, farmer, Jan. 18, 25, and Feb. 22. (Mr. Chabot, Crispin street, Spitalfields

Thomas D. New Castle Emblyn, Carmarthen, shopkeeper, Dec. 31, Jan. 3, and Feb. 4. (E. Daniel and Sons, Bristol; and Pearson and Son, Pump court, Temple, London

Tipple W. Golden lane, grocer, Jan. 11, 14, and Feb. 4. (Mr. Thomas, Bartlett's buildings, Holborn

Truefit W. Hanover street, Long Acre, shipowner, Jan. 18, 21, and Feb. 22. (Mr. Bower, Chford's inn

Wallace R. Bath, linen draper, Jan. 2, 11, and Feb. 4. (Mr. Walker, Exchequer office, Lincoln's inn, or Chancery lane, London; and R. A. Sheppard, Bath

Ward T. Liverpool, innkeeper, Jan. 21, 22, and Feb. 11. (Griffith and Hinde, Fenwick street, Liverpool; and Mr. Windle, John street, Bedford row, London

Ward T. Manchester, merchant, Feb. 3, 4, and 25. (Milne, Sergeant and Milne, Manchester; and Milne and Parry, Temple, London

West J. Barnsley, York, grocer, Jan 29, 30, and Feb. 15. (Mr. Clarke, Barnsley; and Exley, Stocker and Dawson, Furnival's inn, London

Wharton A. New Sarum, clothier, Jan. 29, 30, and Feb. 29. (Mr. H. Godwin, New Sarum; and Blake and Son, Cook's court, Chancery lane

Whitaker J. and R. Alsop, Manchester, grocers, Jan. 10, 11, and Feb. 4. (Mr. Basnett, Manchester; and Mr. Huxley, Temple, London

Whitmore J. Worcester, Jan. 11, 15, and Feb. 4. (Mr. Hill, Broad street, Worcester

Wilday J. jun. Meriden, Warwick, maltster, Jan. 10, 13, and Feb. 18. (Kinderley and Long, Gray's inn, London; and Troughton and Lea, Coventry

Williams R. Salisbury, linen draper, Jan. 21, Feb. 1, and 29. (Mr. Walker, Old Jewry

Williamson T. Manchester, draper, Jan. 6, 7, and Feb. 1. (Mr. Ellis, Chancery lane, London; and Mr. Cardwell, Manchester

Wilson B. Leeds, York, flax spinner, Feb. 3, 5, and 18. (Lee and Raynard, Leeds; and Sykes and Knowles, New inn, London

Woolbert T. D. Charing cross, hatter, Jan. 18, 25, and Feb. 18. (Mr. Boustield, Bouverie street, Fleet street

Young A. St. Swithin's lane, merchant, Jan. 18, 21, and Feb. 22. (Palmer, Tomlinson, and Thomson, Copthall court, Throgmorton street

BANKRUPTCIES SUPERSEDED.

Clarke S. late of Charlotte street, Rathbone place, Oxford street, Middlesex, tailor

Smith G. of the Kent road, carpenter

SCOTCH BANKRUPTS.

Angus A. and Angus W. grain dealers, at Mains, in Kirkintilloch; Creditors to meet 2d and 23d Jan. at Curl's tavern, near the Tontine, Glasgow

Cathie D. and H. mill spinners, in Dundee; Creditors to meet 31st Dec. and 23d Jan. at the house of A. Morren, vintner, Castle street, Dundee

Coates G. Glasgow, cotton yarn merchant; Creditors to meet in the

house of W. Hector, vintner, Paisley, Dec. 31 and Jan. 28

Clelland W. mason and grocer, Edinburgh; Creditors to meet within the Royal Exchange coffee house, Edinburgh, Jan. 8

Cotton S. china merchant, Glasgow, lately trading as E. Cotton and Co. and E. and S. Cotton; Creditors to meet in the Prince of Wales's tavern, Jan. 9

Duncan J. Braehead, Ayr county, cattle dealer; Creditors to meet in the house of W. Stirling, vintner in Ayr, 15th Jan. and 12th Feb.

Fisher P. late of Haughead, of Campsey, now of Glasgow, merchant; Creditors to meet 30th of Dec. and 27th Jan. at Saracen's head, Gallowgate, Glasgow

Harrison M. Glasgow, merchant; Creditors to meet, Prince of Wales's tavern, Glasgow, Jan. 23 and Feb. 20th

Hill J. flesher, some time in Perth, now of Errol; Creditors to meet, 10th of Jan. 7th of Feb. at the White Bull inn, Perth

Mackenzie J. Riverford, Dingwall, merchant; Creditors to meet 10th of Jan. and 7th of Feb. in the house of James Ross, vintner, Dingwall

Monkhouse R. and T. Edinburgh, merchants and warehousemen; Creditors to meet, Royal Exchange coffee house, Edinburgh, Jan. 2d and 28th

Rankin J. and Son, boot and shoe makers, in Lanark and Carluke, and Rankin J. sen. and Rankin J. jun. as individuals; Creditors to meet at Lanark, in the house of R. Somerville, innkeeper, Jan. 9th

Piper M. innkeeper in Mayhole; Creditors to meet 2d and 20th Jan.

Thomson T. and J. merchants in Auchtermuchty; Creditors to meet 3d and 31st Jan. at the George inn, Perth

Wilson J. merchant, in Leven, Fifeshire; Creditors to meet 31st of Dec. and 28th of Jan. at the Meldrums inn, Kirkaldy

Total Bankrupts this month,

English	101
Scotch ditto	15
Total this month	116
Last month	179
Decrease	63

DIVIDENDS.

*** This first List includes all those paid or payable before Feb. 1.*

Adams C. Pancras lane, and Finsbury, merchant

Aplin G. C. East-Rudleigh, Devon, miller

Avis J. Timbers-combe, Somerset, mealman

Ault J. Love lane, Eastcheap, broker

Ayre R. Leicester, currier

Barchard W. Edmonton, Middlesex, underwriter

Beaumont W. Almondbury, York, spinner

Beckett J. late of Aldermanbury, lighterman

Been E. late of Parliament street, milliner

Benjamin B. late of Chatham, Kent, glass and chinaman

Bennet J. Tavistock, Devon, mercer

Benson J. W. late of Holbeach, Lincoln, surgeon

Berry R. Shoreditch, hop merchant.

Bird W. late of Stone, Staffordshire, and Broadfield E. H. late of Stourport, Kidderminster, Worcester, boat builders

Blease J. Dover street, Hanover square, upholsterer

Bloore W. Half Moon alley, Bishopsgate street, timber merchant

Blow J. late of Ware, Hertford, malt factor

Boote C. and Walker J. Chester, hat manufacturers

Booth W. Bury, Lancaster, shop keeper

Boraman J. Brighton place, Hackney road, flour factor, any Saturday

Boulton D., Morgan P., Vancouver J. G. and Stow B. Cuper's bridge, Lambeth, merchants

Bowen B. Harrow, Middlesex, apothecary

Broadfield E. H. late of Stourport, Kidderminster, and Kidd J. Stoney Stafford, boat builders

Brown J. late of Tavistock, Devon, carpenter

Brown P. Paul street, Finsbury, baker

Bucknell S. Great Grimsby, Lincoln, merchant

Budden W. and Pyefinch H. Friday street, grocers

Bull J., Banks W. and Bryson J. King street, Cheapside, linen drapers

Burford E. late of East India Shipcharlton, merchant
Butters D. Queen street, Bloomsbury, tailor
Burn J. Broad street, insurance broker
Cannom S. late of Beckingham, Essex, carpenter
Carr W. late of Hythe, Kent, draper
Chambers E. Wateringbury, Kent, shopkeeper
Chambers S. Maidstone, Kent, corn merchant
Clayton T. Manchester, grocer
Clive T. and Richardson R. Tokenhouse yard, merchants
Clowes J. Birmingham, jeweller
Coates H. New Sarum, Wilts, apothecary
Cockrill W. late of Stallingborough, Lincoln, salesman
Cole M. T. Hatton garden, copper plate engraver
Collenson T. Southampton row, Bloomsbury, cabinet maker
Cooke H. and Herbert J. Birchin lane, merchants
Cooper W. Minories, silk mercer
Cowley J. Sheffield, York, cutler
Cuff W. Minories, cheesemonger
Curtis J. Spring street, Mary-lebone, tallow chandler
Dallas A. Tower hill, wine merchant
Davey E. W. Rotherhithe, ship joiner
Davies J. Chepstow, Monmouth, watchmaker
Dick Q. and J. Finsbury square, merchants
Dixon W. and H. Rotherhithe, timber merchants
Dowding T. Paternoster row, warehouseman
Doyley J. Covent garden, china and glass-man
Duckett W. Ramsgate, Kent, carpenter
Dunage S. St. Paul's Church yard, trunk maker
Edwards J. Manchester, merchant
English T. E. Great Marlow, Bucks, shopkeeper
Fairless E. T. late of Staples' inn, money scrivener
Fell H. Watling street, Manchester warehouseman
Fleet J. Lambeth, miller
Franks J. Lambeth, cabinet maker
Fourdrinier H. Cannon street, and Fourdrinier S. Charing cross, paper manufacturers
Free W. H. Horsleydown, Southwark, merchant
Gane F. Frome Selwood, Somerset, victualler
Gardner J. late of Horsleydown, Southwark, coal merchant
Garrett J. late of Lenham, Kent, haberdasher
Gibborn N. Judd street, Brunswick square, grocer
Glover M. and E. late of Kidderminster, Worcester, milliners
Godmond C. Hull, wharfinger
Goldston M. J. Great Prescot street, Goodman's fields, merchant
Goodwin J. late of Ludlow, Salop, shopkeeper
Grainger T. Long Acre, brass founder
Griffin R. Birmingham, draper
Griffiths J. late of Ranelly, Carmarthen, farmer
Hain J. Hampton, Middlesex, victualler
Hall R. W. Clement's lane, merchant
Hamilton R. Old Broad street, merchant
Harrison S. and W. Manchester and Sheffield, hatters
Hastings T. and R. Queen street, Park, Southwark, silversmiths
Haynes M. S. Queenhithe, insurance broker
Henzell G. Little Eastcheap, broker
Hewson D. Wigton, and Barnes J. late of Little Bampton, Cumberland, manufacturers
Hills B. Enfield, Middlesex, linen draper
Hinde T. late of Liverpool, merchant
Hinde J. late of Bucklersbury, grocer
Hitchon W. St. Peter's hill, Doctors' Commons, whalebone merchant
Holman W. and C. Grove street, cow keepers
Hopper T. Manchester, liquor merchant
Horders A. St. John street, Smithfield, potter
Horman W. and C. Deptford, Kent, cow keepers
Hurrell T. York street, St. James's square, tailor
Hurry J., Powles R. and Hurry J. Nag's Head court, Gracechurch st.

Huskisson S. (not J.) Swinton street, Gray's inn lane, chemist

Hutchings H. jun. High Holborn, baker

Jackson H. Mincing lane, merchant

Jacob J. and W. Newgate street, merchants

Jarman W. Walworth, Surrey, upholsterer

Jerment R. Old Change, factor

Ingle T. Oxford street, hosier

Ingram B. Old street, bedstead maker

Jones H. late of Montgomery, tanner

Jones H. S. late of Buenos Ayres, now of Holborn, merchant

Jones S. Wardour street, Soho, grocer

Joyce A. D. Fordingbridge, Hants, tick manufacturer

King W. late of Bream's buildings, Chancery lane, cabinet maker

Knowles T. late of Leeds, York, hardwareman

Lay J. Oxford street, Mary-le-bone, hatter

Lee H. Holywell street, Shoreditch, silversmith

Lee S. Birchin lane, merchant

Linford T. Cheapside, silversmith

Mac Alester P. late of Stratford-upon-Avon, Warwick, hawker

M'Guffie Arch. Liverpool, merchant

Macnamara J. London, merchant

Mullalieu W. and G. Manchester, cotton twist dealers

Marnder R. Exeter, wine merchant

Mathews P. Copthall court, merchant

May H. Bristol, cornfactor

Maynard J. Wells, Somerset, cabinet maker

Mears H. Greenwich, Kent, tavern keeper

Meeker W. P. Basinghall street, merchant

Midwood J. Huddersfield, York, maltster

Mobbs S. Southampton, Hants, milliner

Morgan J. Coppice row, Clerkenwell, victualler

Morgan S. and Morley M. R. late of York street, Southwark, hop factors

Mosely H. Laurence Pountney hill, and Whieldon J. Copthall court, merchants

Mount R. and Roberts W. Angel court, merchants

Nesbitt J., Stewart E. and Nesbitt J. jun. Aldermanbury, merchants

Newport W. jun. King's road, Gray's inn lane, coach and harness maker

Nicholls T. late of Plymouth, merchant

Nutter H. and J. and Wake T. Huddersfield, York, merchants

Osborne M. late of Bedford, Warwick, chandler and soap boiler

Palmer T. New road, Whitechapel, soap maker

Palsgrave T. Bennett street, Blackfriar's road, insurance broker

Parker B. Saffron hill, iron founder

Parker D. Exeter, flour merchant

Payne J. West square, Southwark, baker

Perks S. Walsall, Stafford, factor

Perry F. Finsbury square, merchant

Peters J. Portsmouth, Hants, merchant

Phillips P. Drury lane, tailor

Pilkinton W. St. Lidwell, Exeter, hop merchant

Poole T. D. Arlington, Gloucester, miller

Porter N. Birmingham, factor

Porter S. Chesham, Bucks, mealman

Poulton C. Reading, Berks, cabinet maker

Pursell S. Milk street, warehouseman

Reeve W. Clapham, Surrey, coach master

Rennards R. and T. Hull, merchants

Rippon R. Liverpool, merchant

Robertson, S. Liverpool, merchant

Robertson W. Great St. Helen's, Bishopsgate street, merchant

Roose J. Liverpool, merchant

Ryley E. Wisbich St. Peter's, Cambridge, linen draper

Sabine W. Gosport, Hants, grocer

Salt A. and Beckham C. A. Birmingham, wine merchants

Seager S. T. Maidstone, Kent, dealer

Shawford W. C. Albany, Piccadilly, confectioner

Short J. St. Catherine's lane, East Smithfield, victualler

Simeon M. Bath, lace merchant

Simpson J. and Fairman W. G. Old Change, factors

Slade P. Charles street, Hampstead road, coach smith

Smith G. and Curre J. late of Chepstow, Monmouth, bankers

Smith W. King's Arms yard, Coleman street, money scrivener

Southey R. and T. Fish street hill, merchants

Spencer W. F. Gosport, mercer

Sproston J. Tewkesbury, draper, &c.

Sprotton J. Liverpool, merchant

Stephens E. and E. late of Oxford street, carvers and gilders

Stephenson J. Hull, druggist

Stewart Arch. late of Broad street, Ratcliff, hoop bender

Sutcliffe J. York, druggist

Sykes J. Queen street, Cheapside, sugar factor

Sykes T. and Baker W., Leeds, York, dyers

Talbot C. Edgware road, Middlesex, tailor

Thompson H. Newcastle-upon-Tyne, woollen draper

Thorne P. Tavistock, Devon, miller

Thornton W. Huckley, Leicester, currier

Tilstone J. Newcastle-under-Line, Stafford, hat manufacturer

Trelvar T. jun. Penryn, Cornwall, brewer

Wade S. Manchester, and Blakeley S. late of London, dealers

Wakeling E. Clare, Suffolk, brewer

Waller J. Lower Tooting, Surrey, butcher

Warwick W. Red Lion street, Clerkenwell, jeweller

Webb W. Westminster Bridge road, Lambeth, coal merchant

Webb J. Bristol, Gloucester, linen draper

Welford J. Broad street, insurance broker

Wetherby T. Great St. Thomas Apostle, ironmonger

White W. Blackfriar's road, Surrey, white lead manufacturer

Whittle J. Liverpool, tailor

Wightman J. George street, Foster lane, haberdasher

Wigmore W. Narrow street, Limehouse, biscuit baker

Wilcocks J. and E. and Frazer A. Exeter, bankers

Williams S. B. Austin friars, merchant

Williams J. Romney Iron works, Glamorgan, shopkeeper

Willis J., Jukes G. M., Jackson J. G. and Langley J. Salisbury square, Fleet street, merchants

Willis J., Jukes G. M., Jackson J. G. and Langley J. Salisbury square, Fleet street, and Jukes F. late of Gosport, Hants, merchants

Willshaw S. City road, tailor

Wilson R. Friday street, Cheapside, merchant

Wood E. Bury, Lancaster, cotton manufacturer

DIVIDENDS.

*** *This List includes all those which are payable, so far as known, when put to press, subsequent to the Day of Publication.*

Almond J. Ulves Walton, Lancaster, corn dealer, Feb. 11, Globe tavern, Liverpool

Ashton R. Bideford, Devon, linen draper, Feb. 12, White Lion, Broad street, Bristol

Asling C. Hind court, Fleet street, jeweller, Feb. 4, Guildhall

Ashling E. and Cooper J. late of Spa road, Bermondsey, Southwark, merchants, Feb. 1, Guildhall

Auger E. Eastbourne, Sussex, merchant, Feb. 11, Star inn, Lewes

Bailey S. and Maguire G. Fore street, Cripplegate, ironmongers, Feb. 8, Guildhall

Been E. Westminster, milliner, Feb. 8, Guildhall

Bennett A. M. late of Devonshire street, Queen square, broker, Feb. 15, Guildhall

Bennett J. Tavistock, Devon, mercer, Feb. 25, Commercial inn, Plymouth

Bodman W. sen. Queen street, Southwark, victualler, Feb. 8, Guildhall

Bowden S. Liskeard, Cornwall, and of Plymouth Dock, mercer, Feb. 6, London inn, Plymouth Dock

Bowdler W. late of Cheapside, Manchester, warehouseman, Feb. 19, Bridgewater arms inn, Manchester

Brickwood J. and J., Rainier J., Morgan W. and Starkey J. Lombard street, bankers, Feb. 1, Guildhall

Brill W. late of Woodbridge, Suffolk, butcher, Feb. 17, Bull inn, Woodbridge

Brown J. late of Tavistock, Devon, carpenter, Feb. 25, Commercial inn, Plymouth

Brown S. and Tildesley W. Bloxwich, Stafford, rope makers, Feb. 5, Stork tavern, square, Birmingham

Carrington J. Manchester, Feb. 1, Guildhall

Carter M. Mere, Wilts, linen draper, Feb. 14, Ship inn, Mere

Champ J. Chichester, Sussex, money scrivener, Feb. 8, Guildhall

Chetham R. Stockport, Chester, check manufacturer, Feb. 5, Moseley arms inn, Manchester

Clarkson T. late of Kingsbury, Warwick, coal dealer, Feb. 7, Warwick arms, Warwick

Collins E. St. Mary axe, boot and shoemaker, Feb. 1, Guildhall

Collins R. Union court, Broad street, builder, Feb. 8, Guildhall

Collins T. Harvey's buildings, Strand, printer, Feb. 22, Guildhall

Cornford T. and G. Milford lane, Middlesex, coal merchant, Feb. 1, Guildhall

Corrie J. Weston street, Southwark, common brewer, Feb. 8, Guildhall

Cross J. Plymouth, butcher, Feb. 6, London inn, Plymouth Dock

Curtis E. Bristol, broker, Feb. 4, Angel inn, Bath

Davey J. Truro, Cornwall, rope maker, &c. March 2, J. K. Haberfield's, All Saint's court, Bristol

Dixon W. and H. Rotherhithe, Surrey, timber merchants, Feb. 8, Guildhall

Dobson J. Liverpool, merchant, Feb. 8, Guildhall

Delckham T. Washfield, Devon, Feb. 4, Globe tavern, Exeter

Ecle S. late of Cannon street road, St. George, Middlesex, mason, Feb. 13, Guildhall

Fall G. and Hutchinson J. late of Tooley street, Southwark, brewers, Feb. 1, Guildhall

Field W. Oxford street, fringe manufacturer, Feb. 1, Guildhall

Free W. H. Horsleydown, Southwark, merchant, Feb. 8, Guildhall

Fursman S. Plymouth, Devon, baker, Feb. 6, London inn, Plymouth dock

Gilchrest B. Cheapside, warehouseman, Feb. 15, Guildhall

Goodwin W. Gosport, Hants, baker, Feb. 7, India arms, Gosport

Goldney P. B. Seymour court, Bucks, lace merchant, Feb. 1, Guildhall

Greaves J. P., Sharp H. and Fisher F. King's Arms yard, Coleman street, merchants, Feb. 8, Guildhall

Goodwin J. Sheffield, carpenter, Feb. 5, Tontine inn, Sheffield

Hall S. Bristol, ironmonger, Feb. 3, Bush tavern, Bristol

Halliday T. Old South Sea house, Bread street, merchant, Feb. 18, Guildhall

Hamper J. High street, Southwark, hosier, Feb. 1, Guildhall

Haswell A. Haymarket, army accoutrement maker, Feb. 4, Guildhall

Haywood J. Wood street, Cheapside, wholesale woollen draper, Feb. 1, Guildhall

Heddon J. Bristol, merchant, Feb. 10, Bush tavern, Bristol

Higgins T. Mere, Wilts, victualler, Feb. 14, Ship inn, Mere

Holman W. and C. Deptford, Kent, cow keepers, Feb. 8, Guildhall

Hockly T. Mincing lane, merchant, Feb. 1, Guildhall

Hurry J. Nag's Head court, Gracechurch street, Powles R. ditto, and Hurry J. late of ditto, merchants, Feb. 8, Guildhall

Hutchinson J. Tooley str., Southwark, brewer, Feb. 1, Guildhall

Jacobs M. Shadwell, slopseller, Feb. 1, Guildhall

Ingle T. Oxford street, hosier, Feb. 22, Guildhall

Jones J. Rochdale, Lancaster, oil dealer, Feb. 8, Guildhall

Jones J. Wrexham, Denbigh, maltster, Feb. 7, Hop-pole inn, Wrexham

Jones C. and Loadsman B. Sheffield, druggists and grocers, Feb. 8, Guildhall

Jowsey W. jun. Northallerton, York, grocer, Feb. 4, Town house, Stockton, Durham

King G. Frome-Selwood, Somerset, cabinet maker, Feb. 11, Guildhall

Kirkes J. Little Tower hill, wine merchant, Feb. 8, Guildhall

Lant D. late of West Smithfield, salesman, Feb. 8, Guildhall

Le Brun P. F. Old Bond street, chemist and druggist, Feb. 13, Guildhall

Leeming T. Preston, Lancaster, Myres J. Birstall, York, and Chapman W. Preston, worsted manufacturers, Feb. 17, Sun inn, Dipford, York

Lester J. J. and R.W. Rotherhithe, Surrey, mast and sail makers, Feb. 1, Guildhall

Linford T. Cheapside, silversmith, Feb. 4, Guildhall

Lucas N. and Betke C. Pancras lane, merchants, Feb. 8, Guildhall

Macnamara J. London, merchant, Feb. 10, Guildhall

Maddock J. Liverpool, soap boiler, and Maddock J. and W. ditto, Feb. 3, George inn, Dale street, Liverpool

Mann J. Harbury, Warwick, draper, Feb. 13, Bell inn, Shipston on Stower, Worcester

Manning W. Boston, Lincoln, straw manufacturer, Feb. 1, Peacock inn, Boston

Marris R. Great Grimsby, Lincoln, grocer, Feb. 7, White Hart tavern, Hull

Maunder R. Exeter, wine merchant, Feb. 10, New London inn, Exeter

Maxfield T. Lewes, Sussex, grocer, Feb. 1, Guildhall

Metcalfe J. and Jeyes J. East Smithfield, oilmen and brokers, Feb. 8, Guildhall

Milward C. S. Bromley, Middlesex, miller, Feb. 15, Guildhall

Mitchell J. New Sleaford, Lincoln, grocer, &c. Feb. 7, Rein deer, Lincoln

Nicholls T. jun. Bradford, Wilts, linen draper, Feb. 11, White Lion, Broad street, Bristol

Noble P. Leadenhall street, master mariner, Feb. 15, Guildhall

Parr J. Manchester, merchant, Feb. 6, Dog tavern, Dean's gate, Manchester

Paterson A. T. and Malonck J. M. Liverpool, merchants, Feb. 10, Globe tavern, Liverpool

Phipps R. Maidstone, Kent, linen draper, Feb. 8, Guildhall

Pilkington W. St. Sidwell's, Exeter, seed merchant, Feb. 4, Old London inn, Exeter

Polglase J. Bristol, merchant, Feb. 3, Bush tavern, Bristol

Prosser W. W. and Cotter R. Fenchurch street, wine merchants, Feb. 5, Guildhall for R. Cotter

Rayner E. and Medley J. Newport, Isle of Wight, corn dealers, &c. Feb. 13, Bugle inn, Newport

Robinson T. Romford, Essex, printer, Feb. 4, Guildhall

Routh J., Mesurier T. and Routh H. L. Austin-friars, merchants, Feb. 8, Guildhall

Self G. Fenchurch street, grocer, Feb. 18, Guildhall

Smith H., Chesmer H. and Down J. Great Winchester street, merchants, Feb. 15, Guildhall

Spencer W. F. Gosport, Hants, mercer, Feb. 7, India arms inn, Gosport

Stapley T. Tunbridge Wells, Kent, butcher, Feb. 1, Guildhall

Stevens J. and Carter J. Bread street, Cheapside, warehousemen, March 3, Guildhall

Stone J. Windsor, Berks, haberdasher, Feb. 11, Guildhall

Syme G. Vine street, Minories, merchant, Feb. 15, Guildhall

Sykes J. and J. Leeds, York, merchants, Feb. 10, White Horse tavern, Leeds

Tallemachs T. Petersham, Surrey, dairyman, Feb. 8, Guildhall

Thompson J. Hand court, Upper Thames street, wholesale stationer, Feb. 1, Guildhall

Thorne P. Tavistock, Devon, miller, Feb. 25, Commercial inn, Plymouth

Thornley J. Liverpool, merchant, Feb. 3, Globe tavern, John street, Liverpool

Toledano P. de B. Great Prescot street, Goodman's fields, merchant, Feb. 1, Guildhall

Tripp J. Bristol, woollen draper, Feb. 11, White Lion, Broad street, Bristol

Troke J. New Sarum, Wilts, cutler, Feb. 11, Maidenhead, New Sarum

Tyson D. Liverpool, merchant, Feb. 12, George inn, Dale street, Liverpool

Von Doornick W. E. B. late of Warwick, in Warwick, soap manufacturer, Feb. 8, Warwick arms, Warwick

Weaver E. Kenton street, Brunswick square, dealer in glass, Feb. 8, Guildhall

Williams S. B. Austin-friars, merchant, Feb. 1, Guildhall

Willis J., Jukes G. M., Jackson J. G. and Langley J. Salisbury square, Fleet street, merchants, Feb. 11, Guildhall, separate estate for Willis and Jackson, and joint for Jukes and Langley

Winter J. and J. Acre lane, Brixton Causeway, Surrey, builders, Feb. 11, Guildhall

Withers H. Bath, haberdasher, Feb. 4, Full Moon inn, Old Bridge

SCOTCH DIVIDENDS.

Bell J. Glasgow, ironmonger, Feb. 3, at Buchanan and Carrick's, Albion street, Glasgow

Bryce J. H. Kilmarnock, merchant, Feb. 21, at Smellie and Graham's, Candleriggs, Glasgow

Hood J. and J. late of Glasgow, merchants, Feb. 3, at Aitchison's, writer, in Glasgow

Malcolm S. Brechin, merchant, Feb. 3, at the Trustee's Office, Brechin

M'Harrie J. Montrose, vintner, Feb. 8, at Mr. Alex. Paterson's, trustee, in Montrose

Nichols J. Hawick, baker and spirit dealer, Jan. 21, at Mr. T. Miller's, writer, in Hawick

Skelby J. late of the Greenock Tontine inn, Jan. 15, at Mr. R. Baird's office

Ure A. jun. Glasgow, manufacturer, Feb. 11, at Mr. J. Turnbull's, Brunswick place, Glasgow

Wales H. Balmish, dyer, Jan. 29, at Mr. Bell's, Newton-Stewart

CERTIFICATES.

Adams T. Bristol, merchant

Aldersey P. Liverpool, grocer

Avenell C. Portsea, watch maker

Bate J. G. Liverpool, merchant

Bailey J. Fry's place, Blackfriar's road, tailor

Berry G. Barnstey, York, linen maker

Brown W. Loftsome, York, corn dealer

Brownridge S. Leeds, merchant

Barber W. Cheapside, warehouseman

Butcher W. Sutton in Ashfield, mercer

Blythe J. Bristol, merchant

Barnes T. Black rod, Lancaster, calico printer

Brun P. F. le, Old Bond street, chemist

Ball J. Adam street, Adelphi, auctioneer

Bugby J. Brunswick square, coal merchant

Briggs M. Margaret street, Cavendish square, milliner

Burbidge J. Little St. Thomas Apostle, warehouseman

Cooke B. Manchester, merchant

Corran W. Liverpool, liquor merchant

Cohen G. A. Gloucester street, Commercial road, merchant

Dobson E. Brampton Mills, Huntingdon, miller

Deschamps W. W. Lawrence Poultney lane, merchant

Deckinson W. Nottingham, banker

Dodd E. Dockhead, Bermondsey, tallow chandler

Dalby E. Bucklersbury, warehouseman

Dunster R. Fen court, Fenchurch street, underwriter

English T. E. Great Marlow, Bucks, shopkeeper

Eddells T. Aldermanbury, warehouseman

Elkington J. Birmingham, tortoise-shell box maker

Ellis J. Gray's inn lane, scavenger

Eastland J. Oatlands, dealer

Freeman T. Dyer's court, Aldermanbury, warehouseman

Frances J. Leather lane, leather cutter

Fawcett M. Liverpool, music seller

Foster H. and W. G. Sharpe, Basinghall street, warehouseman

Goldfinch E. of Canterbury, chemist

Greenhough J. Tottington, Lancaster, cotton spinner

Govey J. Walcot, Bath, Bristol

Grimley J. Ashted, Birmingham, key stamper

Hancock T. Rotherhithe street, mast and block maker

Haydon N. King street, Bloomsbury, milliner

Hyde W. Manchester, merchant

Hiscocks Z. of Bristol, draper

Hodgson J. jun. Christchurch, Surrey, distiller

Ingledew S. Huddersfield, York, linen draper

Ingleby J. Lugan, Flint, lead merchant

Ingleby C. of Soughton, Flint, lead merchant

King C. Albany, bill broker

Knight G. Holloway, builder

Le Mesurier F. Lloyd's Coffee house, merchant

Lonsdale J. Northumberland, corn factor

Lee H. jun. Hull, grocer

Lewton A. Oldland, Gloucester, dealer in coals

Matthews P. Copthall court, merchant
Mognie J. Carlisle place, Lambeth, musical instrument maker
Napier T. of Dublin, merchant
Owen J. Bucklersbury, merchant
Payne T. H. Cullum street, merchant
Pearson J. Eastcheap, wine and brandy merchant
Picton T. Hillingdon, Middlesex, soap boiler
Peacock R. Liverpool, coach maker
Pfeil A. L. Bishopsgate street, merchant
Pent J. and W. Smith, Piccadilly, saddlers
Roome B. Doctor's Commons, coach maker
Reynolds W. Cheshunt, Herts, dealer
Roberts W. E. Liverpool, woollen draper
Rust T. Marchmont street, Brunswick square, oilman
Rowed M. Mitcham, coal merchant
Simpson J. of Gosport, coal merchant
Smith T. Tipton by Birmingham, edge tool maker
Scantlebury, Hythe, Kent, tailor
Scott J. W. Grantham, Lincoln, banker
Stewart D. Greek street, Soho, jeweller
Shale S. Wolverhampton, locksmith
Slade G. Riverhead, Kent, brandy merchant
Sowter R. Hull, merchant
Swaine G. J. Memell street, Goodman's fields, salesman
Sabine W. Gosport, grocer
Teideman W. sen. and jun. Portsmouth
Trigwell J. Store street, Bedford square, Poulterer
Twycross R. H. Brook street, Holborn, jeweller
Wilcock W. Preston, Lancaster, woollen draper
Wharton J. Chester, corn dealer
Woodward J. Derby, lace manufacturer
Willshaw S. City road, tailor
Woodburne J. Manchester, druggist
Yaldon J. Manchester, miller

IMPORTS AT THE PORT OF HULL.

The following commercial account from Hull was received from our respectable correspondent at that place, who has kindly promised to favour us regularly with all useful commercial information relative to that port, including the imports.

Hull, Jan. 23d, 1812.

OUR last advices from Petersburg are to the 4th Dec. when the ruble was noted at 20*d.* and 20½*d.* in exchange with England, being an advance from 10½*d.* since the corresponding month of the former year; it is difficult to account for such an extraordinary rise, unless it can be attributed to the expected peace with Turkey, which, however, was not publicly announced at Petersburg when our letters left there, though such an event was confidently expected. There seems to be no solid foundation for the supposition that a restoration of the relations of trade with this country must follow as a matter of course, on concluding a peace with Turkey. The present system is injurious to us rather than to Russia; she sells

her produce at full as high prices as she did before, and has a demand as great as ever, as is evident from the small quantity of goods remaining on hand at the close of last shipping season, there being only about 1,000 tons of flax, 5,000 tons of hemp, and 3,000 casks of tallow, by no means greater, but less than generally in former years, and for this full as high prices are demanded as when the ruble was at 10¼*d.* being an advance in the first cost of near 100 per cent.: besides which, on the present system, she enjoys the benefit of employing her own ships to carry her goods to our market at very high freights, even double and treble what our own ships would; and in addition to this, we employ a fleet of twenty sail of the line, and twenty or thirty other ships of war to protect this trade, (this privilege is also extended to the Americans, Swedes, &c.) so that unless Russia has other reasons than those out of her commercial relations, it seems hardly probable she will abandon her present system for the purpose of obliging us, when by so doing she not only sacrifices her advantages as above stated, but inevitably involves herself in a war with France. We have been repeatedly deceived by calculating on the commerce with Russia being restored to its former footing, as though she was anxious for it, not considering that her interest lies directly the other way; therefore, unless she is desirous and prepared to break her connexion with France, it is to be feared we must be content to continue to carry on the trade on the present system.

Imports at the Port of Hull from 25th Dec. 1811, to 25th Jan. 1812.

Cork wood	19	tons.
Currants, raisins, and figs	72	do.
Deals	70	standard cwt.
Flax	101	tons.
Hemp	64	do.
Iron	191	do.
Linseed	1,746	quarters.
Lemons and oranges	18,700	
Mahogany	344	logs.
Rum	37	puncheons.
Tar	67	lasts.
Timber	1,527	loads.
Wine	172	pipes.

PREMIUMS OF INSURANCE AT NEW LLOYD'S COFFEE-HOUSE.

From LONDON *to*	
Portsmouth, Spithead, Poole, or the Isle of Wight	½g.
Weymouth, Exeter, Dartmouth, or Plymouth	2gs.
Alderney, Guernsey, or Jersey	3gs.
Bristol, Wales, Chester, Liverpool, Whitehaven, and Places adjacent	3gs.
Kinsale, Cork, Waterford, Dublin, Newry, or Belfast	4gs. ret. 1.
Limerick or Galway	6gs. — 1.
Londonderry or Glasgow	3gs.
Yarmouth or Lynn	1½
Hull or Gainsborough	1½g.
Newcastle, Whitby, or Sunderland	1½gs. or 2.
Leith, Perth, Dundee, Montrose, or Aberdeen	1½gs. & 2gs.
Inverness, Shetland, or the Orkney Islands	3 & 4gs.
Stockholm and Places adjacent	—free in port.
Riga, Revel, Narva, or Petersburgh	40 10
Oporto	10gs. ret. 5l.
Lisbon	8gs. ret. 4l.
Rio de Janeiro	6gs. ret. 2l.
MEDITERRANEAN, viz. Malaga and Places adjacent	12gs. ret. 4l.
Salonica, Gallipoli, Smyrna, or Constantinople	16gs. ret. 8l.
Madeira	4gs. ret. 1l.
Jamaica	8gs. ret. 4l.
Leeward Islands, viz. Grenada, Tobago, Barbadoes, &c.	6gs. ret. 3l.
Surinam, Demerara, or Berbice	6gs. ret. 3l.
Musquito Shore, Honduras, and Places adjacent	12gs. ret. 6l.
The American States, their Ships	10gs.
American States, British Ships	—
Newfoundland and Coast of Labradore	4gs. ret. 6l.
Bay of Fundy, Quebec, or Montreal	—
Cape of Good Hope or St. Helena, Company's Ships	4gs.
Others	6gs. ret. 1l.
Southern Fishery, out & home	25gs.
Bengal, Madras, or China, Company's Ships	6l.
Ditto, out and home	12l.
LIVERPOOL, BRISTOL, &c. *to*	
Cork, Waterford, Dublin, Newry, Belfast, Londonderry, or Glasgow	1½.
Limerick or Galway	3gs.
Archangel, home	25gs.
Oporto or Lisbon	5gs. ret. 2l.
Gibraltar	6gs. ret. 2l.
Madeira	6gs. ret. 2l.
Jamaica	6gs. ret. 3l.
Leeward Islands	6 3l.
Ditto with Convoy	5gs. 1.
American States	10gs.
Greenland, out and home	—
DUBLIN, CORK, &c. *to*	
London	4gs.
The Baltic	—
Lisbon and Oporto	6gs. ret. 2l.
American States, American Ships	10gs.
Ditto, British	12gs.
Greenland, out and home	—
West Indies	6gs. ret. 3l.
Jamaica	Ditto
Limerick to London	6gs.

The Average Prices of Navigable Canal Property, Dock Stock, Fire Office Shares, &c. in Jan. 1812, *(to the 25th,) at the Office of Mr. Scott, 28, New Bridge Street, London.*

Birmingham Canal, 615*l.* dividing 98*l.* 5*s.* clear per annum.—Neath Canal, 280*l.* ex dividend, 20*l.* per share clear.—Leeds and Liverpool, 194*l.* dividing 8*l.* clear.—Warwick and Birmingham, 288*l.* 290*l.* dividing 12*l.* clear.—Grand Junction, 205*l.* 210*l.* ex half yearly dividend, 3*l.*—Worcester and Birmingham Old Shares, 34*l.*—New ditto, 4*l.* discount.—Kennet and Avon, 31*l.* to 30*l.* 10*s.* 30*l.*—Monmouth, 103*l.*—Dudley, 80*l.* ex dividend.—Ashby-de-la-Zouch, 21*l.*—Ellesmere, 69*l.*—Union, 87*l.*—Lancaster, 22*l.* 10*s.*—Wilts and Berks Old Shares, 23*l.*—New Ditto, 7*l.* premium.—East India Dock, 131*l.* per cent.—London Dock Stock, 116*l.* ex dividend, half yearly, 3*l.* clear.—Commercial Dock Old Shares, 168*l.* per Share, with 3*l.* 10*s.* half year's dividend.—Rock, 10*s.* premium.—East London Water Works, 61*l.* to 80*l.*—London Flour Company, 8*l.*—Strand Bridge, 9*l.* per cent. discount, without interest due.—London Institution, 60*l.*—Russell ditto, 16*l.* 10*s.* 18*l.* 18*s.*—Surrey ditto, 14*l.*—West Middlesex Water Works, 85*l.*—Provident Institution, 2*l.* 10*s.* premium.—English Copper Company, 7*l.* 15*s.* 7*l.* 10*s.* dividing 8*s.* per share.

IMPORTATIONS at the PORT of BRISTOL, during the last Month.

Aniseed, casks	9	Oranges, chests, &c.	2083
Bacon, bales	437	Staves, 100	about 160
Flax, bales	16	Wool, bags	469
Flax seed, hogsheads	136	Tar, barrels	647
Hides, 34 bundles	613	Turpentine, barrels	448
Linseed, tons	5	——— spirits, pipes	3
Feathers, bags	50	Provisions, barrels	about 1500
Lemons, chests, &c.	355		

IMPORTATIONS AT THE PORT OF LONDON,

FOR THE MONTH ENDING 24TH JAN. 1812.

Almonds, 116¼ cwt.—16 bales—22 casks		Lemons	2078
Arrow Root, lbs.	4270	Oranges	
Ashes, Pearl and Pot, cwt.	11,024	Raisins, (Smyrna,) 661 cwt. 2141 casks, 430 boxes	
Barilla, tons		Rice, bags	
Brandy, gallons		Rum, casks	360
Brimstone, tons, a quantity		Silk, Thrown, lbs.	2240
Bristles, 164 cwt.—74 lbs.		—— Raw, lbs.	1800
Butter, tons	1664	Sugar, 1966 casks, 8 chests, 4 boxes	
Cheese, tons	100	Tallow, tons	1397
Coffee, 160 bags and 60 casks		Tar, lasts	911
Cork, 13½ tons—567 cwt.		Tobacco, lbs.	2,310,088
Cotton, bags	3326	Turpentine, cwt.	2519
Flax, tons	737	Wheat, qrs.	7300
Hemp, tons	1992	Wine, gallons	99,420
Linseed, qrs.		Madder, cwt.	1806
Oil, Olives, tons	49	Hides	36,760

COURSE OF EXCHANGE.

	Friday, 3d Jan.	Friday, 10th Jan.	Friday, 17th Jan.	Friday, 24th Jan.
AMSTERDAM, 2 *Us.*	29 0	29 0	29 0	29 9
Ditto, at sight	28 0	28 0	28 14	29 1
Rotterdam, 2 *Us.*	8 7	8 13	9 2	9 2
Hamburgh, 2½ *Us.*	24 0	25 0	27 6	27 6
Altona, 2½	26 0	26 0	27 7	27 7
Paris, 1 day's date	18 5	18 6	19 1	19 1
Ditto, at sight	18 6	18 6	19 5	19 10
Bourdeaux	18 11	18 11	19 6	19 11
Madrid ..... *Effective*	—	—	—	—
Palermo .... *in paper*	125	125	125	125 *d per oz.*
Cadiz	45½	46	46	46
Bilboa	41	41	41	41
Leghorn	58	58	58	58
Genoa	54	54	54	54
Venice	52	52	52	52
Naples	42	42	42	42
Lisbon	68¼	68¼	68¼	68¼
Oporto	67½	67½	68¼	68¼
Rio Janeiro	66	67	68½	68½
Malta	59	59	60½	60
Gibraltar	40	40	41	41
Dublin	9¼	9¼	9	8½
Cork	10	10	9½	8½

New Doubloons, £4. 14s. 6d. per Ounce.——New Dollars ——— per Ounce.——Omnium 1 ds.
Agio of the Bank on Holland, 4 per Cent.

Average Price of Corn throughout England and Wales, taken from the London Gazette, for the Week ending 18th Jan. 1812.

Wheat	105s 11d	Peas	65s 1d
Rye	55 5	Beans	56 9
Barley	31 2	Oats	31 9
Oatmeal	52 7	Beer or Big	— —

HAY AND STRAW, per Load.—24th Jan. 1812.

ST. JAMES'S MARKET.	£ s.	£ s.	WHITECHAPEL.	£ s.	£ s.	SMITHFIELD.	£ s.	£ s.
Hay	3 10 to	6 6	Hay	4 10 to	6 6	Hay, old	5 0 to	5 10
Clover	0 0 —	0 0	Clover	6 8 —	7 7	Clover	6 0 —	6 6
Straw	2 2 —	2 11	Straw	2 8 —	2 16	Straw	2 8 —	2 14

PRICE OF COALS, 24th Jan. 1812.

Newcastle	46 0 to 55 3	Cinders	30 0 to 0 0
Sunderland	46 6 — 47 3	Other Coals	44 0 — 0 0

Delivered at 12s. advance on the above Prices.

CORN EXCHANGE.—Price of Grain, 24th Jan. 1812.

Wheat	75 to 96	Malt	66 to 82	Oats	27 to 36
——, fine	94 —112	White Pease	72 — 84	Polands	32 — 36
——, superfine	104 —112	Boilers	78 — 85	Fine Flour	90 — 95
Rye	52 — 56	Gray	56 — 62	Seconds	85 — 90
Barley	35 — 48	Beans, old	46 — 53	Per sack of 5 bushels, or 280lbs.	
——, fine	50 — 55	Ticks	46 — 54	Rape Seed, per last	56 — 64

FRIDAY, 24th Jan. 1812.

SMITHFIELD MARKET.

TO SINK THE OFFAL, PER STONE OF 8lbs.

Beef	4 8 to 6 4
Mutton	5 0 — 6 4
Veal	6 0 — 8 0
Pork	5 0 — 6 4
Lamb	0 0 — 0 0

NEWGATE AND LEADENHALL.

BY THE CARCASE.

Beef	4 0 to 5 4
Mutton	4 0 — 5 4
Veal	5 0 — 8 0
Pork	4 8 — 6 8
Lamb	0 0 — 0 0

Head of Cattle this day—Beasts 630, Sheep and Lambs 3930, Calves 120.

PRICE OF HOPS.—BOROUGH.

Kent, bags, New	£4 0 to 6 0	Kent, pockets, New	£5 0 to 7 7
Sussex	3 15 — 5 12	Sussex	4 15 — 6 0
Essex	4 0 — 6 0	Essex, Farnham	10 0 —11 0

Old Duty doing at £135,000.

Average Price of Brown or Muscovado Sugar, 45 6½ per Cwt. exclusive of Customs and Excise payable thereon.—T. NETTLESHIP, *Clerk of the Grocers' Company.*—For Week ending 18th Jan.

SCOTCH MARKETS.—EDINBURGH, Jan. 22d.

MEAL MARKET, TUESDAY.

	£	s.	d.
Oatmeal, per bolls			
First, per boll	1	4	6
Second	1	3	0
Third	1	2	0
First, per peck	0	1	7
Barleymeal	0	1	5
Peasemeal	0	1	5
Quartern Loaf	0	1	3

PRICES OF MEAT, &c.

Beef, per lb.	7d. a 8d.
Mutton	6d. a 8d.
Veal	10d. a 12d.
Pork	8d. a 9d.
Lamb, per qr.	2s. 0d. a 3s. 0d.
Raw Hides, per st.	7s. 0d. a 8s.
Butter, per lb.	1s. 8d. a 1s. 10d.
——, Salt	1s. 4d.
Eggs, per dozen	1s. 3d.

GRASS MARKET, JAN. 21.

Sheep and Lambs, 450, at per stone, sinking offals	8s. 0d. a 8s. 3d.
Cattle, 310	8s. 4d. a 8s. 6d.
Milk Cows, 121. to 24l.	
Horses sold heavily, 35l.	
Coals, p. cart of 12 cwt. 8s. 6d. a 10s.	

DUNDEE MANUFACTURES, Jan. 16.

LINENS.

Sail-cloth, No. 1	16 a 0
HempCotton Bagging	11 a 14
Strelitz	10½ a 11
Lint Osnaburghs	8½ a 9
Tow ditto	5¼ a 6½
Do. strong 22 port.	7 a 7½
Do. do. 24 porter,	8¼ a 9½
Ger. Dowl. 27 inch	15 a 15¼
Common ditto,	12 a 0
Tow sheeting, 24 port	13½ a 13½
Ditto ditto — 20 —	11 a 12

YARNS, per spl.

3lb. Lint hand-spun	5 4 a 5 6
3 ditto Mill-spun	5 10 a 6 0
4 ditto ditto	7 4 a 0 0
5 ditto ditto	8 4 a 8 7
6 ditto ditto	9 6 a 9 9
7 ditto ditto	11 2 a 0 0
6 shorts ditto	0 11 a 0 11½
7 and 8 Tow ditto	0 9½ a 0 10

FLAX.

Petersburgh, 12head	110 a 115
——, 9 ditto	86 a 88
Riga Thiesenhausen	115 a 120
Drujana Cut	98 a 100
Leibau	100 a —
Narva, 12 head	89 a 94
Archangel	— a —

HEMP.

Petersburgh, clean	£94 a 95
Ditto, half clean	80 a 83
Riga Rhine	92 a 95
Drujana Pass	84 a —
Common Pass	70 a 74
Codilla	45 a 46

LONDON PRICE CURRENT.

JAN. 24, 1811.

B. signifies Barrel; Bl. Bushel; Ch. Chest; C. 112lb.; D. Dozen; G. Gallon; H. 100, and of Deals 120; J. Jar of Oil of 24 Gallons; and a ½ Chest of Oil 30 Flasks, or 4 Gallons; Lt. Last, or Barrels of Pitch, containing 31½ Gallons each; Q. Quarter of 8 Bushels; T. Ton, or 20 cwt.; Tu. Tun of 252 Gallons.—NOTE, Wine is sold by Gauge, viz. Port per Pipe of 138 Gallons; Bucellus and Lisbon per Pipe of 140 Gallons; Sherry per Butt of 150 Gallons; Madeira per Pipe of 110 Gallons; Mountain per Butt of 126 Gallons; Vidonia per Pipe of 129 Gallons; Rhenish per Aum of 36 Gallons; and Claret per Hogshead of 57 or 58 Gallons (all Increase and Decrease is adjusted.) All Kinds of Fish Oil are sold per Tun of 262 Gallons; Olive, Linseed, and Rape Oil, per Tun of 236 Gallons.

N. B. The Duties which are paid by the Importers, are included in the following Prices, and the Drawback, if Exported within three Years, is the Property of the Shipper.

	FROM £.	s.	d.	TO £.	s.	d.	Per
ALUM, English	24	0	0	25	0	0	T.
——, Roach	1	15	0	0	0	0	C.
Almonds Barbary Bitter	3	5	0	3	6	0	—
—— Sweet	5	4	0	0	0	0	—
——, Jordan	22	0	0	22	0	0	—
——, Valentia	6	0	0	0	0	0	—
Annatto, Flag	0	0	11	0	0	0	lb.
——, Spanish	0	3	6	0	0	0	—
Argol, Bolo. & Rhe. W.	4	10	0	4	15	0	C.
—— Florence, White	4	0	0	4	10	0	—
——, Red	4	0	0	4	10	0	—
—— Naples, White	3	5	0	3	15	0	—
——, Red	3	5	0	3	15	0	—
Ashes Amer. Pearl	2	6	0	2	10	0	—
—— Pot best	2	0	0	0	0	0	—
—— Barilla, Teneriffe	1	12	0	1	14	0	—
——, Spanish	2	2	0	0	0	0	—
——, Sicily	1	15	0	0	0	0	—
—— Dantzic Pearl	0	0	0	0	0	0	—
—— Russia Pot	1	14	0	1	16	0	—
Bark, Oak	0	0	0	0	0	0	—
BERRIES, Junip. Ger	1	10	0	1	13	0	—
——, Ita.	1	12	0	1	15	0	—
——, Yell. Turk.	4	0	0	4	10	0	G.
Brandy, Best	1	14	0	1	18	0	—
——, Inferior	1	10	0	1	14	0	—
Brimstone, Foreign Ro	28	0	0	30	0	0	C.
Bristles, Hog Rus. un.	24	0	0	0	0	0	—
——, Archan. ditto	24	0	0	0	0	0	—
——, Konings. ditto	25	0	0	0	0	0	—
CAPERS, French	10	0	0	12	0	0	—
——, Spanish	4	0	0	6	0	0	lb.
Cochineal, Spa. Garb.	1	11	0	1	14	0	—
——, East India	0	5	6	0	6	6	—
Cocoa, West India	3	10	0	4	0	0	C.
——, Carr. for Exp.	3	15	0	4	5	0	—
Coffee, W. I. very ord.	1	6	0	2	0	0	—
—— ord.	2	1	0	2	10	0	—
—— mid.	2	11	0	3	0	0	—
—— gd.	3	1	0	3	0	0	—
—— fine	3	11	0	4	5	0	—
——, Mocha or E. I.	11	10	0	12	4	0	—
——, Java	2	2	0	2	10	0	—

		FROM £.	s.	d.	TO £.	s.	d.	Per
Copper, unmanufact.		4	10	0	0	0	0	C.
——, manufactured		0	0	0	0	0	0	—
Copperas, Green		0	5	6	0	0	0	—
Cotton Wool — Brazil.	Pernambuc	0	1	8	0	1	9	lb.
	Bahia	0	1	6	0	1	7	—
	Maranhan	0	1	5½	0	1	6	—
	Para	0	1	4	0	1	5	—
Dutch	Suriuam	0	1	5	0	1	7	—
	Demerara	0	1	3	0	1	7	—
	Berbice	0	1	3	0	1	7	—
West Indies. — No Tret allowed.	Carriacou	0	1	4	0	1	5	—
	Grenada	0	1	2	0	1	3	—
	Barbadoes	0	1	2	0	1	3	—
	Smyrna	0	1	0½	0	1	1½	—
	Bahama	0	1	1	0	1	3	—
	Bengal	0	0	8½	0	0	9	—
	Georgia	0	1	10	0	2	3	—
	Orleans	0	1	3	0	1	5	—
DYER'S Wd. Bar. W.		17	0	0	18	0	0	T.
——, Brazil		105	0	0	in	bond		—
——, Brazilet		12	0	0	18	0	0	—
——, Cam Wd.		33	0	0	38	0	0	—
——, Fustic		14	0	0	15	0	0	—
——Zant or young		7	0	0	9	0	0	—
——Logw. Camp.		19	0	0	20	0	0	—
——Hond. chipt		14	0	0	16	0	0	—
——Jamaica ch.		14	0	0	14	10	0	—
——Nicaragua, l.		28	0	0	32	0	0	—
——small		14	0	0	16	0	0	—
Sanders, Red		40	0	0	0	0	0	—
DRUGS								
ALOES, Barb.		18	0	0	0	0	0	C.
——, Succotorine		18	0	0	22	0	0	—
——, Hep. or E. I.		16	0	0	0	0	0	—
Angelica Root		6	0	0	6	6	0	—
Antimony Crude		5	15	0	6	6	0	—
Arsenic, Red		4	0	0	4	4	0	—
——, White		4	0	0	0	0	0	—
Balsam, Capivi		0	3	3	0	3	9	lb.
——, Peru		0	10	0	0	11	0	—
——, Tolu		0	4	0	0	5	0	—
Bark, Jesuits		0	2	0	0	3	0	—

	FROM £	s.	d.	TO £	s.	d.	Per
Bark, Jesuits, Red	0	8	0	0	10	0	lb.
——, Yellow	0	3	0	0	3	6	—
Borax, refined, E. I.	3	3	0	0	0	0	C.
——, English	0	2	2	0	0	0	lb.
——, unre. or Tinc.	3	10	0	4	0	0	C.
Camphire, refined	0	5	3	0	0	0	lb.
——, unrefined	16	0	0	0	0	0	C.
Cantharides	1	16	0	0	0	0	lb.
Cardamoms (best)	0	7	0	0	8	0	—
Cassia Buds	10	0	0	14	0	0	C.
—— Fistula, W. I.	3	0	0	3	10	0	—
—— Lignea	15	0	0	30	0	0	—
Castor Oil, p. bot. 1¼lb.	0	5	0	0	6	0	bo.
Coculus Indicus	10	10	0	0	0	0	C.
Colocynth, Turkey	3	9	0	3	10	0	lb.
Columbo Root	3	9	0	3	10	0	C.
Cream of Tartar	12	0	0	0	0	0	—
Essence of Bergamot	0	17	0	0	18	0	lb.
—— Lavender	0	12	0	0	0	0	lb.
—— Lemon	0	8	0	0	8	6	—
—— Origanum	0	16	0	0	18	0	—
—— Rosemary	0	16	0	0	18	0	—
Gallangal, East India	2	15	0	3	0	0	C.
Gentian Root	6	0	0	7	0	0	—
Ginseng	0	1	6	0	0	0	lb.
Gum Ammo. Drop	17	0	0	20	0	0	C.
—— Lump	9	0	0	13	0	0	—
Gum Arabic, E. I.	2	0	0	3	10	0	—
—— Turkey, fine	7	0	0	7	10	0	—
—— Barbary	3	10	0	4	0	0	—
—— Assafœtida	8	0	0	10	0	0	—
—— Benjamin	20	0	0	34	0	0	—
—— Cambogium	20	0	0	26	0	0	—
—— Copal, scraped	0	1	6	0	2	0	lb.
—— Galbanum	8	10	0	9	0	0	C.
—— Guaiacum	0	1	6	0	3	6	lb.
—— Mastic	0	5	0	0	0	0	—
—— Myrrh	18	0	0	20	0	0	C.
—— Olibanum	3	0	0	6	10	0	—
—— Opoponax	85	0	0	0	0	0	—
—— Sandrac	6	10	0	0	0	0	—
—— Seneca, garbled	3	4	0	0	0	0	—
—— Tragacanth	20	0	0	24	0	0	—
Jalap	0	3	8	0	3	10	lb.
Ipecacuanha	0	13	6	0	15	0	—
Isinglass, Book	1	1	0	0	0	0	—
—— Leaf	1	2	0	0	0	0	—
—— Long Staple	1	2	0	0	0	0	—
Manna, Flakey	0	4	6	0	6	0	—
Musk, China	0	13	0	0	14	0	oz.
Nux Vomica	0	10	0	0	0	0	C.
Oil of Vitriol	0	0	3½	0	0	0	lb.
Opium	0	15	0	0	0	0	—
Pink Root	0	6	0	0	0	0	—
Quicksilver	0	7	0	0	0	0	—
Rhubarb, East India	0	3	6	0	7	0	—
——, Russia	0	14	0	0	16	0	—
Saffron	1	14	0	2	0	0	C.
Sago	2	10	0	2	14	0	—
Sal Ammoniac	9	10	0	0	0	0	—
Salop	14	0	0	0	0	0	—

	FROM £	s.	d.	TO £	s.	d.	Per
Sarsaparilla	0	1	10	0	3	0	lb.
Sassafras	25	0	0	0	0	0	T.
Scammony	1	8	0	1	7	0	lb.
Senna	0	3	9	0	4	6	—
Seeds, Anni. Alicant	6	0	0	0	0	0	C.
——, Coriander, English	0	16	0	0	0	0	—
——, Cummin	4	5	0	0	0	0	—
——, Fenugreek	3	14	0	0	0	0	—
Shellack	6	0	0	8	10	0	—
Sticklack	8	0	0	9	0	0	—
Snake Root	0	9	0	0	0	0	lb.
Soap, Cast. or Spanish	6	0	0	10	0	0	C.
——, Yellow	4	12	0	0	0	0	—
——, Mottled	5	2	0	0	0	0	—
——, Curd	5	6	0	0	0	0	—
Spermaceti, refined	0	2	3	0	0	0	lb.
Tamarinds, West India	8	10	0	9	0	0	C.
Tapioca, Lisbon	0	0	6	0	0	9	lb.
Turmeric, Bengal	9	0	0	0	0	0	C.
——, China	11	0	0	12	0	0	—
——, West India	8	5	0	0	0	0	—
Verdigrise, Wet	0	3	6	0	0	0	lb.
——, Dry	0	7	3	0	0	0	—
——, Crystalliz.	0	11	0	0	0	0	—
Vitriol, Roman	0	0	7	0	0	0	—
EBONY, Black Rose	34	0	0	0	0	0	T.
——, Green	21	0	0	22	0	0	—
Elep. T. 70 to 90lb. en.	29	0	0	0	0	0	C.
——, Scrivelloes	17	0	0	0	0	0	—
FEATHERS, Dantz	0	2	9	0	0	0	lb.
——, Hambro'	0	2	0	0	2	3	—
——, Russia	0	2	8	0	0	0	—
——, Down	0	3	6	0	0	0	—
Flax, Riga	112	0	0	115	0	0	T.
——, Petersb. 12 head	100	0	0	105	0	0	—
——, Archangel	90	0	0	94	0	0	—
GALLS, Aleppo, blue	7	7	0	8	0	0	C.
——, mixt	6	0	0	6	5	0	—
Geneva, Holland	1	3	0	1	3	6	G.
Glue, For. dry, th. lea.	4	4	0	0	0	0	C.
——, thin	2	4	0	2	5	0	—
Hemp, Riga Rhine	93	0	0	0	0	0	T.
——, Out shot	83	0	0	0	0	0	—
——, Codilia	40	0	0	0	0	0	—
——, Petersb. Clean	93	0	0	94	0	0	—
——, hf. cl.	82	0	0	0	0	0	—
Hides, raw, West India	0	0	4½	0	0	5½	lb.
——, Bus. Ayrs.	0	0	4½	0	0	7	—
——, Brazil	0	0	4	0	0	5½	—
——, Hor. Brit.	0	13	0	0	16	0	Hi
INDIGO.							
Spanish. Guatimala, Flora	0	10	0	0	12	0	lb.
——, Sobr.	0	8	6	0	10	0	—
——, Corts.	0	5	0	0	8	6	—
Caracca, Flora	0	9	6	0	12	0	—
——, Sobres	0	8	0	0	9	3	—
——, Cortes	0	5	6	0	7	9	—
Brazil	0	2	6	0	4	0	—

		FROM £	s.	d.	TO £	s.	d.	Per
East Ind.	Blue	0	10	0	0	11	6	lb.
	Purple	0	8	9	0	10	3	
	Copper and violet	0	6	3	0	8	9	
	Copper	0	3	6	0	5	6	
IRON, British, in Bars		16	0	0	0	0	0	T.
——— Pigs		9	0	0	10	0	0	
———, Old Sable		22	0	0	29	0	0	
———, New Sable		21	0	0	22	0	0	
———, Gurioffs		21	0	0	0	0	0	
———, Archangel		21	0	0	0	0	0	
———, Swedish		20	0	0	21	0	0	
LEMONS, repa.		5	0	0	0	0	0	ch
Licorice, Italian		9	9	0	0	0	0	C.
———, Spanish		7	0	0	8	0	0	
Lead, Pigs		30	0	0	0	0	0	T.
——, Milled or Sheet		33	10	0	0	0	0	
——, Bars		31	15	0	0	0	0	
——, Shot, No. 1 to 5		34	0	0	0	0	0	
——— 6 to 9		34	10	0	0	0	0	
——, Litharge		39	0	0	0	0	0	
——, Red		29	0	0	0	0	0	
——, White		41	0	0	0	0	0	
——, Ore		28	0	0	0	0	0	
MADDER, Dut. Cro.		6	10	0	7	0	0	.
———, Ombro		5	10	0	6	0	0	
———, Garance		3	10	0	4	15	0	
———, Mulls		1	5	0	2	5	0	
———, Roots		2	10	0	2	15	0	
Mats, Archangel		7	0	0	0	0	0	H.
OIL, Lucca, or Salad		20	0	0	21	0	0	Jr.
———½ Chest		3	10	0	4	10	0	
——, Olive, Barbary		68	0	0	0	0	0	T.
———, Gallipoli		72	0	0	0	0	0	
——, Palm		2	15	0	0	0	0	C.
——, Turpentine, Eng.		4	15	0	5	2	0	
———, For.		4	5	0	0	0	0	
——, Rape, English		50	0	0	0	0	0	T.
———, Refined		53	0	0	0	0	0	
——, Linseed, English		62	0	0	0	0	0	
——, Cod, Newfound.		36	0	0	0	0	0	
——, Sperm		97	0	0	0	0	0	T.
——, Head Matter		97	0	0	0	0	0	
——, Whale, Greenl.		32	0	0	0	0	0	
——, Brazil, or S. Fish.		42	10	0	0	0	0	
Oranges, Lisb. rt. bust		0	0	0	0	0	0	ch
———, St. Michael's		0	0	0	0	0	0	bx
Orchil Weed, Cana. B.		none			0	0	0	T.
———, Inferior		140	0	0	0	0	0	
———, Cape de Verd		90	0	0	0	0	0	
PITCH, American		0	16	0	0	0	0	C.
———, Archangel		0	17	0	0	0	0	
———, Sweden		1	3	0	0	0	0	
———, British		0	18	0	0	0	0	
PROVISIONS. Butter	Carlow 1st	5	8	0	5	10	0	
	Cork 1st	5	8	0	5	12	0	
	Waterford 1st	5	6	0	5	12	0	
	Holland	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	Friesland	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	York, Best	3	6	0	3	8	0	Fi
	Cumberland	3	4	0	3	6	0	

		FROM £	s.	d.	TO £	s.	d.	Per
Provisions. Irish.	Bacon, New	2	16	0	3	0	0	C.
	Beef, India	12	0	0	12	5	0	
	Beef, Mess	7	15	0	8	0	0	
	Pork, India	8	15	0	8	17	6	
	——, N. M.	4	7	0	4	10	0	
Hams, York		6	5	0	6	10	0	C.
RAGS, Hambro' S.P.F.		3	4	0	3	5	0	
———, F.F.		2	10	0	2	14	0	
———, F.X.		1	9	0	1	10	0	
——, Italian, Fine		3	12	0	0	0	0	
———, Seconds		2	16	0	0	0	0	
Rice		1	5	0	1	10	0	C.
RAISINS, &c. Wholesale D.'s Prices. Currants		3	16	0	4	0	0	
Figs, Faro		0	0	0	0	0	0	
——, Turkey		2	10	0	3	0	0	
Prunes, New		0	0	0	0	0	0	
Muscatels		8	0	0	9	0	0	
Bloom, or Jar		6	0	0	7	0	0	
Sun or Solis, N.		4	10	0	4	15	0	
Denia or Mala.		3	10	0	3	15	0	
Sultana		6	0	0	0	0	0	
Smyrna		3	5	0	3	10	0	
Rosin		0	14	0	0	15	0	C.
Rum, Jamaica		0	4	8	0	5	9	G.
——, Leeward Island		0	4	10	0	5	4	
SACCHARUM Saturni		0	1	6	0	1	8	
Safflower		3	15	0½	0	0	0	lb.
Saltpetre, Ea. In. Rou		3	13	0	0	0	0	C.
——, Brit. Refin.		3	9	0	0	0	0	
Smalts		0	3	6	0	4	9	lb.
Shumack		1	12	0	1	13	0	C.
Skins undressed. Goat, Turkey		1	5	0	2	15	0	D.
——, Mogadore		1	15	0	2	10	0	
Lamb, Italian		3	0	0	0	0	0	120 sk.
——, Spanish		6	0	0	6	10	0	
Kid, Italian		12	0	0	0	0	0	
——, Spanish		6	0	0	9	0	0	
Seal. Greenl.		0	2	11	0	0	0	
—— So. Fishery		0	6	0	0	10	0	
Calf, British		0	10	0	0	12	6	
——, For. salted		0	0	6	0	0	11½	lb.
Silk, Raw, 16 oz. to a lb. Bengal, Skein		0	19	0	1	10	0	
——, Novi		1	6	0	1	16	0	
China		1	18	0	2	1	0	
——, 6 Muss		2	0	0	2	5	0	
Milan		1	17	0	1	18	0	
Reggio		1	11	0	1	12	6	
Brutia		1	11	0	1	12	0	
Silk, Throw. 16 oz. to a lb. Bergam.		3	8	0	3	10	0	
Modena		2	10	0	2	14	6	
Piedm.		3	15	0	4	0	0	
Milan		2	12	0	2	15	0	
Spices, Cinnamon		0	11	0	0	11	6	
——, Cloves		0	11	0	0	12	0	
——, Mace, Long		2	6	0	2	12	0	
——, Nutmegs		0	12	0	1	0	0	
——, Ginger. Barb. W.		3	15	0	4	0	0	C.
——, Jam. Black		4	10	0	0	0	0	
——, Whi.		6	0	0	9	0	0	
——, East India		3	3	0	3	6	0	

		FROM £	s.	d.	TO £	s.	d.	Per
Spices, Pepper.	East India	0	2	5½	0	2	6	lb
	White	0	4	10	0	0	0	
	Long	7	10	0	8	0	0	C.
	P. or J. Pep.	0	1	11	0	1	11½	lb.
Spirits, Malt		0	15	3	0	0	0	G.
Wine		1	2	0	1	3	0	C.
SUGAR.—Wateride Prices.	Antigua	3	9	0	3	18	0	
	Barb. Clay. 1s.	4	10	0	4	18	0	
	——, 2d.	3	12	0	3	14	0	
	——, 3d.	3	10	0	3	12	0	
	Musco. or Bro.	3	10	0	3	17	0	
	Dom. N. and T.	3	10	0	3	14	0	
	Grenada, Moscov.	3	9	0	3	13	0	
	Jamaica, Brown	3	9	0	3	10	0	
	——, Middl.	3	11	0	3	13	0	
	——, Good	3	15	0	3	18	0	
	——, Fine	4	0	0	4	4	0	
	St. Kitts and Mon.	3	10	0	3	17	0	
	Toba. and St. Vin.	3	9	0	3	16	0	
	Surinam & Dem.	3	8	0	3	10	0	
	Trinidad	3	9	0	3	12	0	
	East India	3	10	0	4	0	0	
Sug.-Brokers Prices.	Ground Tips	3	2	0	0	0	0	
	——, Middles	3	4	0	3	10	0	
	——, Faces	3	12	0	3	17	0	
	Lumps, Brown	5	0	0	0	0	0	
	——, Middling	5	4	0	0	0	0	
	——, Best	5	12	0	0	0	0	
	Sing. Loa. Brown	5	2	0	0	0	0	
	——, Middl.	5	5	0	0	0	0	
	——, Best	5	12	0	0	0	0	
	Powder, Loaves	5	15	0	0	0	0	
	Molasses	2	2	0	0	0	0	
TALLOW, Town Melted.		0	0	0	0	0	0	
——, Rus. Yell.		3	16	0	0	0	0	
——, Whi.		3	13	0	0	0	0	
——, Soap		3	10	0	3	13	0	
Rough Fat		0	0	0	0	0	0	St.
TAR, Carolina		1	18	0	0	0	0	C.
——, Virginia		2	6	0	0	0	0	
——, Archangel		1	14	0	0	0	0	
——, Stockholm		1	18	0	0	0	0	
TEA, without Duty or Excise								
——, Bohea		0	1	6½	0	1	8	lb.
——, Congou		0	2	9	0	3	2	
——, Campoi		0	3	1	0	3	6	
——, Pekoe		0	4	8	0	0	0	
——, Twankay		0	3	5	0	3	6½	
——, Hyson Skin		0	3	6	0	3	7	
——, Hyson		0	4	6	0	5	6	
——, Gunpowder		0	5	8	0	7	1	
TIN, in Bars, on Board		8	13	0	0	0	0	C.
——, in Blocks, ditto		8	11	0	0	0	0	
—— Grain, in Block		10	4	0	0	0	0	

		FROM £	s.	d.	TO £	s.	d.	Per each per C. Ld.
TIMBER.—Deals.	D. 3 I. by 40 F.	3	10	0	0	0	0	
	—— 2½ —— 36 ——	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	—— 2 —— 30 ——	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	Stockholm 14 —	70	0	0	72	0	0	
	Christia. 12 —	63	0	0	65	0	0	
	Carlsha, 12 —	45	0	0	48	0	0	
	Norway	7	0	0	7	15	0	
	Dantzic Fir	12	10	0	13	10	0	
	Memel Fir	12	0	0	12	10	0	
American	Quebec	9	10	0	10	0	0	
	Oak Board	12	10	0	0	0	0	
	Pine Boards	8	5	0	0	0	0	
	Masts	12	0	0	18	18	0	
Tobacco bonded	Maryla Fi.	0	0	6	0	0	11	lb.
	Good Colo.	0	0	5	0	0	6	
	Middl. Dit.	0	0	4	0	0	6	
	Virgi. Fine	0	0	6½	0	0	8½	
	Ordinary	0	0	4	0	0	0	
	Carolina	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	Georgia	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	Strip Leaf	0	0	6	0	0	0	
	Turkey	0	0	9	0	1	1	
Tortoise-shell		1	1	0	1	3	0	
Turpentine, American		1	2	0	1	3	0	C. T.
Valonia		16	0	0	0	0	0	lb.
Vermilion, Dutch		0	7	0	0	7	6	C.
	China	0	5	9	0	0	0	
WAX, Bees, English		11	10	0	12	10	0	
	American	10	10	0	0	0	0	
	African	7	0	0	8	0	0	
	Dant. and Ham.	12	12	0	0	0	0	
	Hambro' White	0	2	6	0	0	0	lb.
WINE, Dealers Prices of	Red Port	105	0	0	120	0	0	
	——, Old	115	0	0	120	0	0	Bt
	Sherry	90	0	0	108	0	0	P.
	Lisbon	100	0	0	105	0	0	
	Vidonia	80	0	0	85	0	0	
	Bucellas	100	0	0	105	0	0	
	Mountain, Old	75	0	0	80	0	0	Bt.
	Madeira, Old	90	0	0	120	0	0	P.
	Claret	70	0	0	90	0	0	H.
	Rhenish	0	0	0	0	0	0	A.
Wood, Box, Turkey		24	0	0	26	0	0	Ft
——, Cedar, Carolina		0	1	5	0	1	7	
——, Jamaica		0	0	0	0	0	0	T.
Lignum Vitæ, Jamaica		10	0	0	20	0	0	
——, Provid.		11	0	0	21	0	0	Ft
Mahogany, Hispa.		0	1	8	0	1	9	lb.
——, Honduras		0	1	3	0	1	5	
Wool, Bey. Ruffi. Best		4	4	0	4	0	0	lb.
——, Wooms, Brown		4	2	0	4	2	0	
——, Best W.		3	10	0	0	0	0	
——, W. Sta.		3	6	0	0	0	0	
——, Coat Sea.		4	0	0	0	0	0	
——, Coney, English		0	16	0	0	0	0	
——, Goats, Smyrna		0	4	6	0	5	9	
——, Vigonia, Red		0	9	6	0	11	6	
——, Pale		0	1	0	0	2	3	
Yarn, Mohair, Smyrna		0	2	6	0	3	6	
—Cotton, Turkey		0	2	6	0	3	6	

DAILY PRICES OF STOCKS, from 23d of DECEMBER, 1811, to 20th of JANUARY, 1812.

1811.	Bank Stock.	3 per Cent. Reduced.	3 per Cent. Consols.	4 per Cent. Cons. 1780.	Navy 5 per Cent.	Long Annuities.	Imperial 3 per Cent.	Ditto Annuities.	Irish 5 per Cent.	India Stock.	India Bonds.	South Sea Stock.	Old Annuities.	New Ditto	3½ Exche-quer Bills.	Omnium.	Navy Scrip.	Consols for Account.
Dec. 23	230¾	62¾	shut	78¾	shut	16¼	60⅝				14 15p				3p			64
24	230¾	62⅝		78⅝					92¾		14 15p				3p	¾dis		64¼
26																		
27																		
28																		
30		63	shut	78¾	shut	16¼					15 16p				4p	1dis		63⅝
31	230	62¾		78¾							15 17p				4p			64
Jan. 1																		
2		62⅝		78¼		16¼					15 16p				1	1dis		64
3	230½	63		78⅝		16¼					15 16p				par	¼dis		64¼
4	231	63⅛		78⅛		16¼					17 18p				5	1p		64¼
7	231½	63¼		78⅝		16⅜					17 18p				3½	5p		64¼
9	231½	63⅜		78⅝		16⅜					17 18p				4	6p		
10		63		78¼		16¼					17 18p				3½	6p		64
11	231½	63⅛		78⅜		16⅜					17 18p				3	6p		64
13	231½	63⅛		78⅜		16⅜					17 18p				3	6p		64
14	231½	63		78⅜		16⅜					17 18p				4	6p		64
15	231½	63¼		78⅜		16⅜					17 18p				3	6p		64
16	231½	63¼		78⅜		16⅜					17 18p				6	7p		64¼
17	231½	63		78⅜		16⅜					17 18p				3	6p		65⅛
18	231½	63		78⅜		16⅜					17 18p				6	6p		65⅛
19																		
20	231½	63¼		79		16⅜					17 18p				3½	5p		65⅛

The above are taken at the highest prices of the day. ISAAC VALE, Stock-Broker, 74, Bishopsgate Without.

PRICE OF AMERICAN STOCKS.

Three per cent. £69¼.—Old six per cents. which began paying off 1st January, 1796, and will be liquidated 1st Oct. 1818.—£111. 0s. new six per cents. began paying off 1802, and will be liquidated 1st Oct. 1824.—£111. 0s. all with div. from 1st Jan. 1812.—Lohisiana six per cents. £112. with div. from 1st Jan. 1812.—Bank shares (400 dollars, or £90. each) £96. with div. from 1st January 1811.

IRISH FUNDS.

Bank stock, £195.10.—Government debentures, 3½ per cent. £73¼.—Ditto, 4per cent.£71¼.—Ditto, 5 per cent. £101½.—3½ per cent. government stock, £73¼.—Treasury bills, half premium.—City bonds, 6 per cent. £101.—Grand Canal stock, £77½.